

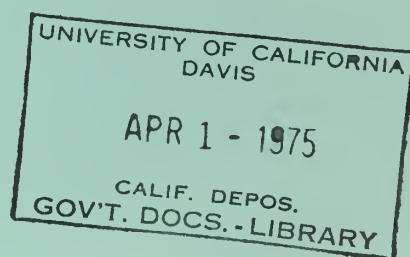
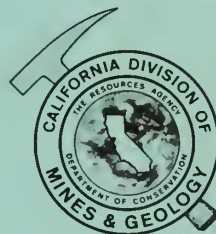
SAN ANDREAS FAULT IN SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA

A guide to San Andreas fault from Mexico to Carrizo Plain

1975

CALIFORNIA DIVISION OF MINES AND GEOLOGY

SPECIAL REPORT 118



Special Report 118

SAN ANDREAS FAULT IN SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA

A guide to San Andreas Fault
from Mexico to Carrizo Plain

Edited by
John C. Crowell

Geological Sciences Department
University of California, Santa Barbara

1975

California Division of Mines and Geology
1416 Ninth Street, Room 1341
Sacramento, CA 95814

STATE OF CALIFORNIA

EDMUND G. BROWN JR., GOVERNOR

DEPARTMENT OF CONSERVATION

LEWIS A. MORAN, ACTING DIRECTOR

THE RESOURCES AGENCY

CLAIRE T. DEDRICK, SECRETARY

DIVISION OF MINES AND GEOLOGY

JAMES E. SLOSSON, STATE GEOLOGIST

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"The farther we are from the last earthquake, the nearer we are to the next"... Bailey Willis

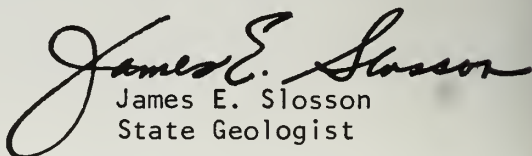
PREFACE

This timely guide has been compiled and published as a joint effort between the California Division of Mines and Geology and the Cordilleran Section of the Geological Society of America in an effort to provide a greater understanding of the San Andreas fault and the regional tectonics of Southern California at a time when earthquakes and seismic hazards are of keen interest.

The organization, format, type style, and review of articles were planned to allow rapid printing in order to have the report available at the March 1975 meeting. Each contributor was asked to write his article, have it reviewed by 2 colleagues, and then to type it in camera ready form according to a set of specifications sent to them by CDMG. To accommodate the large number of papers, and still keep the size of the report within limits that allow quick lay-out, printing, and binding, authors were asked not to exceed 8 camera ready pages with photographs, maps, figures, and tables included.

Hopefully these contributions and the knowledge gained from the field trips and technical sessions of the 1975 annual meeting of the Cordilleran Section of GSA will better enable geologists to fulfill their professional obligations as society attempts to reduce casualties and monetary losses from earthquakes.

Too often, the information obtained by college and university researchers remains in "erudite" publications, unused by designers and planners busy with "practical" matters. Fortunately, this absence of interchange is being replaced by active dialogue between researchers and practitioners of geotechnology. This special report is intended to be one such interchange.


James E. Slosson
State Geologist

SECTION 1

Regional Considerations



See caption-reverse side....

KEY PLACE NAMES

carrizo, el -- common reed grass. The plant exudes a sap from which the Indians made their sweetening substance, panoche.

cajón, el -- large box, case; Chilean, ravine or narrow canyon. The term was used to describe boxlike canyons.

tejón, el -- badger; yew; round gold ingot. The name was applied to Tejón Pass when an exploring party found a dead badger there.

Photo 1. ERTS photoimage of part of Southern California. San Joaquin Valley in upper left corner, separated from Antelope Valley by Tehachapi Mountains. San Andreas fault and Garlock fault are clearly visible. Los Angeles, much of Orange County, and Palos Verdes Peninsula are in the lower right corner; San Fernando Valley in lower center; and Ventura and Oxnard in lower left. The traces of San Gabriel fault and Clearwater fault are visible in San Gabriel Mountains. North is slightly left of the top of the photo.

ERTS photo E-1090-18012-5, 21 Oct 1972.

THE SAN ANDREAS FAULT IN SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA

John C. Crowell
Geological Sciences Department
University of California
Santa Barbara, California 93106

ABSTRACT

The active San Andreas fault runs southward through southern California on the west from the Coast Ranges, rises sharply, and then extends quickly across the Transverse Ranges to the Cajon Pass - San Antonio Pass region. From here, north and south branches along with the Banning fault, converge on the eastward and form a complex system in the Salton trough. In addition, the San Jacinto fault trends southeastward to the Gulf of California from the Cajon Pass region. Along the San Andreas fault system, the crust to the west is moving relatively but irregularly northwestward at rates between 2 and 5 cm/yr (about 3/4 to 2 inches/yr) as shown by geologic measurements. Earthquakes and steep slopes along these active faults pose engineering and economic problems for Californians living near them.

During Pliocene time, the San Gabriel fault was probably the most active strand of the San Andreas system. A distinctive terrain consisting of many rock types in the time sequence has probably been offset a total of at least 300 miles (about 190 miles); about 60 km (about 38 miles) between the Tejon region and the Soledad Pass region on the San Gabriel fault, and about 240 km (about 150 miles) between the latter region and the Popoia Mountains northeast of the San Joaquin Sea. Basement rocks and underlying strata older than upper Miocene have been displaced the same amount, indicating that they slip on the combined faults

began about 12 m.y. ago. Sedimentary basins, such as the Pliocene Ridge Basin, were formed during these tectonic movements; offset features progressively younger than late Miocene are displaced progressively less on the system. With the opening of the Gulf of California a few million years ago the Transverse Ranges were elevated and some of the older structures that had been previously displaced laterally were rejuvenated vertically. Preliminary information suggests that during late Cenozoic time there was a broad transform belt across southern California consisting of subparallel near-vertical faults separating blocks of crust. During relatively northwestward movement of the Pacific plate first one fault was active, then another, and within this pattern some blocks were squeezed upwards while others sagged or were stretched and pulled apart.

INTRODUCTION

California's scenic variety results from its position in the mobile tectonic belt at the boundary between the Pacific and North American lithospheric plates. The master fault within this belt is presently the San Andreas but this has not always been so. With its branches and related faults the San Andreas is now the principal crustal discontinuity in the broad transform zone where the Pacific plate moves relatively northwest with respect to the continent. Many of these faults are seismically active and complex; crustal blocks are moving irregularly, sideways, up and down, and obliquely. Moreover, the blocks between the major faults, although many kilometers wide and deep, are not all rigid and strong, but are pliant. Mountains rising within this mobile

belt are sculptured by stream, wind and sea erosion. Sediment carried from rising highlands spreads across lowlands, to form broad valleys and sweeping alluvial fans. Folding, faulting, jointing and rifting have operated within California at many scales and at different times at different places, as have volcanism, plutonism, metamorphism, and sedimentation. So even though we single out the San Andreas fault and its major branches for examination in this guidebook, we must appreciate that the faults are just a part of a complex tectonic scheme, and the result of powerful internal forces functioning deep within the earth.

The purpose of the field trip is to examine faults of the San Andreas system at selected localities in southern California in attempts to understand its characteristics and history. Inasmuch as Californians must live with the faults and their earthquakes, along with the resulting steep slopes it is especially important to understand the fault system for wise building and engineering construction. In addition, basic research into the origin and history of the fault is indeed needed; views differ on the magnitude and timing of its strike-slip displacements and its tectonic significance. Much remains to be learned.

We can most easily understand the present tectonic behavior of California because we can study earthquakes and measure instrumentally the way that the ground is now deforming. Accurate surveys and tiltmeters, for example, reveal continuous crustal movements. During times of earthquakes we obtain readings on sudden local displacements. Western California is unevenly and relentlessly gliding relatively toward

the northwest along faults with the San Andreas system at rates to 5 cm/yr (2 in/yr) (Hofmann, 1968; Savage and others, 1973). Crustal blocks, caught in this movement, are distorting -- bending, rising, and sinking. The Imperial Valley region near the San Jacinto fault zone in particular is being distorted; earthquakes such as the Borrego Mountain Earthquake of 1968 (Sharp and others, 1972) demonstrate active tectonic instability. Although much of the San Andreas fault system is seismically active both in this southeastern region as well as in central California (Brown and others, 1967; Kovach and Nelson, 1973), the San Andreas fault in the northcentral Transverse Ranges at its Big Bend near Gorman (Fig. 1) has not had a major earthquake since 1857. This 1857 Fort Tejon Earthquake, with an epicenter somewhere along the fault zone in the Tejon Pass region (Wood, 1955) was as severe as the infamous San Francisco earthquake of 1906. However, present geodetic measurements reveal little distortion along the fault in comparison to regions to the north and south (Savage and others, 1973). As Allen (1968) has suggested, the San Andreas is now "locked" in the Big Bend. Strain is perhaps primarily released there by major earthquakes from time to time rather than by creep and many small quakes along the fault as elsewhere. In the Transverse Ranges, as shown by the San Fernando Earthquake of 1971 (Grantz and others, 1971), seismic activity seems to be more closely related to north-south shortening and mountain uplift, than to San Andreas type motions.

Geophysicists and geodesists are presently documenting the nature of the mobility and flexibility of California. More and better instruments, however, are needed

ument more satisfactorily deformation in California at present. h studies on a world-wide scale ng with geologic information necessary to elucidate plate-tectonic theories which have re- led that thin crustal shells and underlying upper mantle of the th have been spreading apart, verging and sliding by each er, for millions of years to duce most of the geologic and graphic features evident on a bal scale. Refinement of these te-tectonic theories, however, their application to problems direct human and engineering cern in California as elsewhere, end as well on detailed tec- ic studies back into geologic e.

Landforms in southern Califor- reveal much concerning tecton- history, and extend our under- nding back into prehistory for y millenia. Fault scarp and set streams, for example, show places the results of several ements. This evidence leads to conclusion that displacements most of the great faults have urred through time. But, ext in a few instances, we have tle data on intervals of recurrence (Wallace, 1970). More ge- ophic research is needed, cou- d with studies of erosion and imentation across recently ive faults. Deposits laid down sag ponds at the base of fault rps can perhaps be dated by iso- ic methods (C_{14}), by palynolog- l studies or by volcanic-ash onology using fission-track dat- and trace-element techniques, thereby place time limits on origin of these fault-formed tures in the near geologic past. interesting geomorphic charac- istic of the San Andreas fault that it obliquely transects eral major topographic features California, such as the San

Gabriel Mountains, where the fault furrow shows little relation to the gross topography. At places the San Andreas fault lies at the base of high escarpments facing northeast (for example, south of Antelope Valley, the western tip of the Mojave Desert), or facing southwest (at the base of the San Bernardino Mountains near the city of San Bernardino).

Farther back in time, our understanding of fault movements depends upon geologic relationships of offset rocks and sedimentary basins over broad regions on either side of the faults. At places sedimentary rocks of Late Cenozoic age laid down at the base of a fault scarp are now offset laterally many kilometers from their source areas. These offset prisms of sedimentary rock range in scale from the truncated distal ends of Quaternary alluvial fans, to middle and late Tertiary basins. Early Tertiary strata, deposited prior to the inception of the San Andreas fault, have been transected by faults so that facies are now displaced hundreds of kilometers (Hill and Dibblee, 1953; Addicott, 1968). Distinctive crystalline basement terrains have also been cut by the faults and displaced -- laterally, vertically, or obliquely. But modern studies that fully characterize and identify these rocks, through the use of geochemical, isotopic, petrographic, and paleontologic methods, are still incomplete, and opinions vary on the significance of results obtained so far. We can conclude at present, however, that the history of the San Andreas system has been long and complicated.

A principal purpose of this field trip is to look briefly at the kinds of evidence bearing on the geologic history of the San Andreas system. We will examine

the nature of the highly deformed rocks within the San Andreas fault zone, the landforms such as scarps and sag ponds along the fault, and discuss the difficult decisions facing Californians in living with the faults. These decisions, although they must be based on geologic understanding, require considerations of engineering, economic, sociologic, and other factors. Geophysical and geodetic data, although vital to our total understanding of these problems, are less emphasized in our discussion because these data are better represented by diagrams, graphs, maps, computer print-outs, tables, and equations that are better studied in an office. However, geophysical investigations are reviewed in articles within this guidebook.

The remainder of this introductory article reviews the status of answers to basic questions concerning the San Andreas fault system in southern California. Such questions are: What is the San Andreas system? When did it originate? How have faults within it moved through time? What has been their total displacement? And finally, what is the role of the fault system in the tectonic framework of western North America?

WHAT IS THE SAN ANDREAS FAULT?

The San Andreas fault system is a set of extensive high-angle faults striking northwesterly and trending through California for about 1000 km (625 mi.) (Fig. 1). Faults of the system are considered to be late Cenozoic strike-slip faults, or at least to possess low-angle oblique slip. The name San Andreas fault is applied to the principal, most recent surface of rupture. As a fault, it is a discrete fracture at places and a narrow belt of fractures at other

places that dip nearly vertically; it has a relatively straight trace across the terrain. It is a deep discontinuity within the earth's crust extending downward 7 to 10 km (4 to 8 mi.) to a zone where rocks mainly flow plastically under stress instead of fracturing brittly. As a crustal break, it is the result of powerful earth forces, and itself does not cause earthquakes. Earthquakes are largely sited along faults, though they occur along the boundaries of crustal blocks as these are forced to slide by each other. As the forces build up through time, the blocks stick together until the sticking point is passed; they then suddenly slip by each other at the fault to release the strain causing the earthquake.

The San Andreas fault is a nearly continuous fault zone of roughly parallel fractures that branch and interlace in a band as much as 10 km (6 mi.) wide. Rocks of many types within this zone are severely deformed and minor structures within the zone are locally quite chaotic. Because of intense deformation within the fault zone the rocks are soft and easily eroded, so that its course is commonly marked by a broad and shallow trough within which is an array of recent fault landforms such as fault scarps, slices, sag ponds, and shutter ridges (Shaler, 1954). This topographic trough with its associated fault landforms is often referred to as the San Andreas rift -- a topographic or geomorphic term, rather than a structural or tectonic term.

Some major faults with trends subparallel to the main San Andreas fault zone lie to the west. These include the Elsinore, Whittier, and faults along the Newport-Inglewood zone, and some faults offshore in the California Borderland. All



North of the Transverse Ranges, the San Andreas fault trends nearly continuously to the ocean north of Point Arena, and then along the sea floor to its intersection with the Mendocino Escarpment. Through the central part of the state, it is remarkably straight, but in the vicinity of Hollister, the San

San Andreas fault bends slightly westward where two major branches splay northward: the Calaveras-Sunol fault and the Hayward fault. Within the Transverse Ranges, and extending southeastward, the San Andreas fault system is more complex. Near the northern edge of these ranges near Gorman, for example, the fault zone bends sharply -- termed the Big Bend -- and trends east-west for about 10 km (6 mi.) between its junctures with the Big Pine and Garlock faults. Southeastward, there are several major branches; these include the San Gabriel fault (the principal fault of the system during Pliocene time) and the San Jacinto (a major component of the system today (Sharp, 1967). In San Geronimo Pass, farther to the southeast, the recent break intersects the Banning fault at the surface (Allen, 1957) although the principal discontinuity occurs along a more ancient break -- the Mill Creek - Mission Creek fault. Here is another region where the fault trace bends, and where other faults meet the San Andreas at a high angle: for example, the Pinto Mountain fault. In such cases, the identification of the San Andreas becomes increasingly unclear. In the San Geronimo Pass region, some geologists consider the San Andreas proper as ending against the Banning fault; others have renamed the Mill Creek - Mission Creek fault as the northern branch of the San Andreas (Dibblee, 1970). It is well to emphasize the concept of a system of faults and to visualize a broad and braided zone of subparallel faults moving through time. As one strand takes over the movement, another is abandoned.

Concepts from plate tectonic theory help us in picturing how the San Andreas fault system ends, to the northwest and southeast. If considered as a transform fault at

present, it ends on the north at a triple junction near Cape Mendocino where the Pacific, North American and Juan de Fuca plates intersect (Atwater, 1970). On the south it passes into the Salton Trough and Gulf of California and apparently becomes involved with sea floor-spreading mechanisms considered as responsible for splitting off of the Baja California Peninsula from the North American continent. According to this view the fault is a right-slip fault ending at the northern end of the original rift that later widened to form the Gulf of California (Crowell, 1974a, Fig. 3). Southeast of this point, rocks of the continental crust have been pulled apart from their counterparts across the widening trough and rift. From here, it no longer is a transform fault with two walls snug against each other, but is a continental margin. Local structures result mainly from down-slope sliding in the widening chasm. Although such a simple transform view may apply to the fault zone at present, it has existed for at least 8 or 10 m.y. before the present Gulf of California opened. Geologists have yet to reconstruct a satisfactory plate tectonic model for its birth and evolution through time. Several geologists do not apply the transform term to some continental strike-slip faults (Hill, 1971, 1974) but apply it only to oceanic faults according to its original usage (Wilson, 1965).

The fault now called the San Andreas was first recognized in the San Francisco Bay region by several geologists in the early 1890's: J. C. Branner, A. C. Lawson, D. S. Jordan, H. W. Fairbanks, C. Derleth, Jr., and S. Taber. The fault, first named San Andreas by Lawson (1895, p. 46) had been traced for some 400 km (250 mi.) southward from the San

San Francisco region before the earthquake of 1906. In southern California, Fairbanks (1894, p. 1) briefly described the fault in the Big Bend region and later Fowler (1897, p. 711-713) described and illustrated it; but neither geologist named it. The 1906 San Francisco earthquake drew attention to it, after which it was traced northward and southward into the Salton Tension (Lawson and others, 1916).

DID THE SAN ANDREAS FAULT ORIGINATE?

In deciphering the complex rock record in California as it bears the history of the San Andreas system, we have to approach two questions more or less simultaneously: when was the fault first displaced? and what is its total displacement? In finding the maximum displacement, rock units and structural features predating the birth of the fault must be identified and correlated with their displaced counterparts; this involves distinguishing between rock bodies separated by the fault from those deposited after the system originated. In the great continental basins and sedimentary stratigraphic units in southern California, for example, we do not show the total slip on the San Andreas because they originated after the movements began. These units include Pliocene rocks in the Ridge Basin.

Two methods, supplemented by a third, are available to date the birth of faults of the San Andreas system. First, if a scarp is exposed at the surface as a consequence of a dip-slip component, sedimentary rocks may be deposited on the scarp with their facies controlled by the fault. If these facies are preserved and are datable by paleontological or other

geochronologic methods, they may document early fault displacement. More commonly, however, such fault-controlled facies present evidence of later movements rather than earlier movements. Examples are provided by the Upper Miocene Santa Margarita breccias, southern Temblor Range (Fletcher, 1967; Vedder, 1970), the Mio-Pliocene Violin Breccia, Ridge Basin, along the San Gabriel fault (Crowell, 1962, p. 39; this volume), and the Miocene Coachella Funglomerate (Allen, 1957, p. 323; Petersen, 1973, this volume).

Second, along major faults with continuous or intermittent displacement through time, the magnitude of the displacement increases with age, until all rocks older than a certain age show the same displacement. If this date can be determined adequately, the time of the fault is shown (Crowell, 1962, p. 42; Grantz and Dickinson, 1968, p. 117; Huffman, 1972, Fig. 13). In southern California the geologic record is unusually complete with many potentially datable rock units of many ages.

Third, as confidence in the tenets of sea-floor spreading and plate tectonics increases, geologists and geophysicists are beginning to extrapolate movements inferred from knowledge of the Pacific Ocean floor to movements at the broad juncture between the Pacific and Americas plates. Atwater (1970) fairly successfully reconstructed events in California using the pattern of magnetic anomalies on the sea floor as a springboard for her interpretations. Later movements on the San Andreas system as judged from the land geologic record dovetail reasonably well with her interpretations, although the middle and early Tertiary record does not accord very well. It seems likely that as

more knowledge is gained of tectonic movements in western North America during Mesozoic and early Cenozoic times, our knowledge of plate-tectonic theory and its application will be improved. A satisfactory tectonic synthesis of southern California, however, is still not at hand.

In applying these methods to southern California to date the beginnings of the San Andreas fault system, it appears that it is not older than late Miocene (about 12 m.y.) and certainly not older than late Oligocene (about 28 m.y.). On the combined San Andreas - San Gabriel fault system, the Mint Canyon and Caliente sedimentary formations were deposited in a trough that spread southwestward from source areas now in the Orocochia - Chocolate Mountain region (Ehlig and Ehlert, 1972; Crowell, 1973). These formations are displaced the same amount (about 300 km or 190 mi.) as are all of the many other correlatable units recognized across the San Andreas fault system (Crowell, 1962; 1973, see below). It is therefore inferred that major right-slip movements began during late Miocene time. The only tentatively recognized exception to this conclusion follows from the occurrence of coarse sedimentary breccias assigned to the Sespe Formation in Canton Canyon, southwest of the San Gabriel fault which are about 28 m.y. old (Crowell, 1962; Bohannon, this volume). Although field relations are somewhat obscure in this area, the breccias apparently accumulated at the base of a scarp along the nearby San Gabriel fault, thereby documenting the existence of a dip-slip component at that time. This segment of the fault, however, may have had an origin unrelated to later right-slip movements.

It should be noted that satisfactory conclusions concerning birth date of the San Andreas system depends on fitting together local geologic detail into a regional synthesis. In addition, geologists face a conceptual and nomenclatural difficulty: along a fault zone such as the San Andreas -- several kilometers wide and consisting of many rock slices separated by discrete faults, and trending through the state for over 1000 km -- it is likely that some of these faults and fault segments are faults not formed by "San-Andreas-type movements". Faults formed in older rocks when California was at the boundary of the converging Americas and Pacific Plate probably now occur within the San Andreas system, but are only rarely identified (Hill, 1971). Faults are named and defined on the basis of their present geographic position, and not by interpretation of their displacements through time. After describing faults and the rocks on either side, we search for kinematic explanations, that is, the "movement picture" through time of how the separate crustal blocks have been displaced and deformed. Such studies include reconstruction of paleogeography based on regional investigations of widespread stratigraphic units of restricted age. Ancient geographies can often be reconstructed when later displacements on the great faults have been considered (e.g., Sage, 1971, this volume).

Geologic information now in hand indicates that major right slip began on the San Andreas in southern California at least 12 m.y. ago. It therefore considerably predates the opening of the present Gulf of California, which began about 5 million years ago (Larsen and others, 1968; Moore and Buffington, 1968; Moore, 1971). Earlier right slip must be related to earlier tectonic situations.

not yet been completely worked (e.g. Karig and Jansky, 1972; and others, 1972). North of the Transverse Ranges as discussed in a later section, the age of the San Andreas fault may be much older and its total displacement may be about twice as

rocks deposited after the San Andreas fault system originated show displacements less than maximum and these displacements decrease with successively younger rocks. Facies within terrace deposits, for example, may show small but convincing offsets. Such displacements have been pointed out by Noble (1926, 1954), Price (1949), Hill and Dibblee (1960), Sharp and Silver (1971), and several others. Somewhat older sedimentary units were laid down in stratigraphic situations in part controlled by San Andreas tectonics, and have since been displaced. Because of the geologic record in southern California is unusually complete, as more chronologic data become available we can expect better documentation of displacements of rocks laid down after the San Andreas system originated. In time, a meaningful time-displacement correlation is foreseeable.

WHAT IS THE MAXIMUM DISPLACEMENT ON THE SAN ANDREAS SYSTEM?

Determining the amount of slip on faults of the San Andreas system depends first on establishing that rock units in crustal blocks on either side of the fault do not match, and second, on discovering displaced counterparts. That we must recognize and document mismatch in the rocks and their different histories, and then, we resolve this mismatch into a single history by discovering and establishing that a displaced terrain is indeed a counterpart. Much detail-

ed information over a huge region is needed to establish distant correlations. In addition, we need to be sure that the true counterparts have been discovered, and that the real ones do not lie at depth beneath a covering of younger sediments (including alluvium), or have been eroded away.

There is considerable controversy on the significance and magnitude of right slip and on its role in the tectonic scheme in southern California. For example, I interpret available data to require about 300 km of right slip on the combined San Andreas - San Gabriel and closely related faults (Crowell, 1960, 1962; Crowell and Walker, 1962). Others, such as Woodford (1960), Woodburne and Golz (1972), Baird, Morton, and others (1974), and Baird, Baird, and Weldon (1974) find they can explain geologic relations with only a few tens of kilometers of right slip. The controversy hinges largely on interpretations of the uniqueness of terrains now offset, and on views of how regions crossed by the San Andreas must have appeared before displacement. The "minislippers" politely accuse the "megaslippers" of overlooking the significance of some petrochemical, stratigraphic, and structural data in rocks opposed across the faults in the Transverse Ranges, and both groups charge each other with failing to undertake sufficient scrutiny over the whole region involved in the advocated 300 km of offset and extending well beyond the "spot correlations".

Without yet understanding many aspects of the complex region, I am confident that a mobilistic view of the region involving considerable strike slip on several faults, along with deep and large-scale folding of basement as well as supracrustal rocks, some rotation

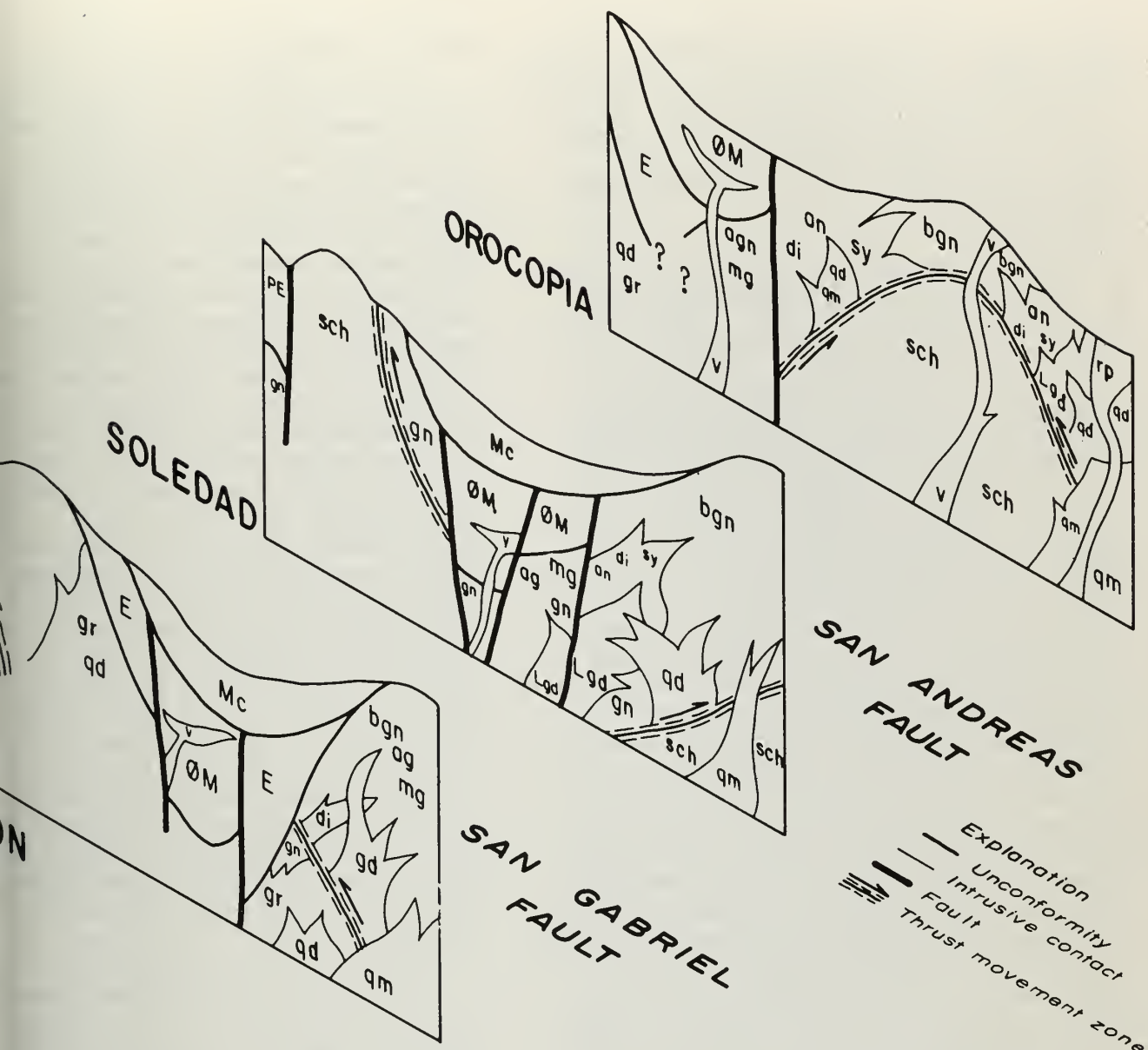
of crustal blocks, and the development of pull-aparts and rhombochasms will in time explain the complexities. Such a "megamobilist" view -- that seems to emerge in part from plate tectonic concepts -- lies somewhat in contrast to the "mesomobilist" view of many, wherein less movement and deformation of individual crustal blocks through time is visualized as likely. Although perhaps such intuitions have no place in science, time will tell which "school", if either, is correct as we gain additional information. Particular attention will be paid to aspects of this controversy on our field trip.

Displaced Terrains on the Combined San Andreas - San Gabriel Fault Zones

Three terrains containing many rock types with similar petrography, age, and implied history are apparently displaced about 300 km (190 mi) (Crowell, 1960; 1962, 1973; Crowell and Walker, 1962). The basement rocks include Precambrian and Mesozoic gneisses and plutonic intrusions, greenschist-facies rocks, and mylonitic tectonic movement zones all overlain by several distinctive sequences of mid-Tertiary strata and volcanic rocks. Structures and strata with volcanic rocks, as young as early Miocene, follow trends at a large angle to the cross-cutting San Andreas -- San Gabriel system. Conglomerates as young as late Miocene contain distinctive clasts, offset from their original sources, and the sequences containing the clasts are displaced as much as all older rocks (Ehlig and Ehlert, 1972). Similar rocks are not known to occur as remnants in the wide Mojave Desert nor to lie concealed beneath young deposits. We are here concerned with remnants of basement types critical to the hypothesis as well as with source areas for some con-

glomerates and sediments. In the accompanying isometric sketch, attention is focussed on the rocks, their sequence, and their ages (Fig. 2). Space here does not allow a detailed description of the rocks in the terrain segments, nor of their histories.

Since I pointed out the probability of these long-distant correlations (Crowell, 1960, 1962) in investigations by several geologists have strengthened them. Radiometric dating and petrographic and chemical studies (Silver, 1971) have disclosed that gneisses in the Tejon Region are of about the same age as those in the Soledad Basin and in the western San Gabriel Mountains (1750-1680 m.y.). These rocks were invaded by granitic plutons (about 1780-1650 m.y. ago), metamorphosed to gneisses (about 1450-1425 m.y. ago), and intruded by the anorthosite complex about 1220 m.y. ago. In the Orocopia region the 1650, 15, 1425, and 1220 m.y. episodes are represented by the same lithologies. Silver (1971) has also identified the Lowe Granodiorite in the Soledad region at 220 ± 10 m.y. (early Triassic). Recently I found remnants of probable Lowe Granodiorite in the northernmost Chocolate Mountains (Orocopia region) and John Dillon (personal communication, 1974) has found similar rocks in the central Chocolate Mountains (just southeast of Mammoth Wash). Here these rocks have not yet been studied sufficiently nor dated to be certain of the correlation. Clasts of the distinctive Lowe Granodiorite have been identified in Oligocene--Lower Miocene beds (Diligencia Formation) of the eastern Orocopia Mountains by me and independently identified and dated by Silver (1968) and identified by Ehlig and me in mid-Miocene strata of eastern Lockwood Valley (Tejon Region) (Silver, 1968, p. 280). Clasts of a distinctive



2 -- Diagram showing sequence of rock units in three regions con-
 ed as displaced on the San Gabriel -- San Andreas fault system (Fig.
 Not to scale. Pliocene and younger formations omitted. Symbols:
 mbrian: bqn = blue-quartz-bearing gneiss, agn = augen gneiss, mg =
 tite, di = diorite and gabbro, an = anorthosite, sy = syenite; Pre-
 ary, but mostly Mesozoic: gn = gneiss; Lgd = Lowe Granodiorite, gr
 nite, qd = quartz diorite, qm = quartz monzonite, sch = Pelona and
 pia schist; Tertiary: PE = Paleocene and Eocene San Francisquito
 tion, E = Eocene formations, ØM = Oligocene and Lower Miocene non-
 e conglomerate, sandstone, and shale, with associated volcanic rocks,
 Middle and Upper Miocene sedimentary formations, rp = rapikivi-
 red quartz latite porphyry, v = other volcanic rocks.

ivi-textured quartz latite
 yry occur in the upper Miocene
 Canyon Formation of Soledad

Basin and in the upper Miocene
 Caliente Formation of Lockwood
 Valley (Ehlig and Ehlert, 1972).

The volcanic source for these stones has almost certainly been identified in the northern Chocolate Mountains, and is now being studied petrochemically by Ehlig and Ehlert. No other appropriate source has been recognized.

Some geologic units, now deformed and displaced along faults of the San Andreas system, were laid down subhorizontally. Especially in northern California, but also along the San Gabriel fault, some were deposited as widespread sedimentary units; others as more restricted in original geographic extent. Widespread or broadly and gently folded formations or structural units are displaced laterally by strike slip for many kilometers and are preserved directly across the fault at places. Under such circumstances, the horizontal slip vector is roughly parallel to the trace of the near-horizontal unit against the fault, and displacement is by trace slip on a regional scale. Cross sections drawn directly across the fault at such places show little or no vertical separation of contacts or formation boundaries as along the San Gabriel fault within the Honor Rancho Oil Field (Paschall and Off, 1961; Crowell, 1962, p. 40). Slip is determined by finding points that were originally adjacent and are now displaced, but the only feasible points are piercing points of gross lines recognized in the rocks that intersect the fault surface. Maps showing such lines are not yet available for southern California, but have been prepared by Addicott (1968) for the region along the San Andreas in central California. For limited time-stratigraphic units in the Miocene, Addicott shows offset facies lines forming piercing points at the fault, documenting about 300 km (190 mi.) of post Miocene right slip in that region. Displacement here has been by re-

gional trace slip.

On a regional scale, blocks separated by major faults of the San Andreas system are not pictured as moving by pure strike slip; that is, as moving with a truly horizontal-slip vector. Blocks between converging faults in map view are squeezed upward, and those between diverging faults as sagging downwards (Crowell, 1974b). All of the major faults display a local dip-slip component as shown by major escarpments, or by the preservation of younger beds in the depressed block and their erosion from the elevated block. In mapping areas the size of mile-to-the-inch quadrangles, these vertical separations are conspicuous and are apt to be interpreted by some as evidence of dip-slip primarily; others, however, interpret them as the result of a small component of dip slip on a fault with great strike slip. Slowly accumulating evidence in California shows that deformable blocks move by each other laterally and at places are elevated and at others depressed (Crowell, 1974b).

The resolution of the controversy depends on (1) discovering and documenting linear features within the rocks that are older than the faults of the San Andreas system, and (2) that are cut and displaced by them so that characterizing features are correlatable on both sides. So far, few discrete offset "lines" have been discovered across the fault system in southern California. A mid Eocene shoreline (or steep but unconformity just offshore) projected on trend to the nearby San Andreas is recognizable in the Pinos area (Tejon region), and the Orocochia Mountains now about 300 km (190 mi.) to the south (Kirkpatrick, 1958; Crowell and

ki, 1959). In addition, in a s way, debris eroded from tted source areas on one side he fault, and spread out in or down valleys on the de- sed side have linear aspects, cially if attention is focussed he feather edges of the depos- Belts of basement rocks of ral types, such as those of n gneiss, blue-quartz bearing ss, anorthosite, syenite, and Granodiorite meet the great ts at an angle, but their mar- are actually steeply dipping aces. These give separations teep contacts and only the d of the masses as a whole can ictured as linear. Other units regional scale, such as the ent thrust system (including Orocopia thrust and Chocolate tain thrust) have low folded tudes. Separations shown by distribution of this disrupted st system and by that of the rlying Pelona and Orocopia ts have little strike-slip ificance because they have been laced by regional trace slip; schists are exposed within anti- s or raised blocks, and the sses and other hanging-wall s are preserved in synforms or essed blocks. .

edimentary units need special ntion by means of "basin analy- in order to find sedimentation ctions, thickness lines, facies s, and especially stone trains iagnostic type washed down from l and unique source areas. Information is slowly coming and as it does, the case for r strike slip appears to be ing increasingly stronger. The e discussion emphasizes the for much information of many s, both on the basement terrains ell as on facies and petrography he overlying sediments. Corre- on studies involving rocks, ctures, and implied histories

holds the key to solving the con- troversy. That is, are rocks now at a distance actually the same rocks that have been displaced, or are they not? Are rocks apparently the same and but little offset, actually very different? Moreover, several rock units, recognized on one side of the fault have not been discovered on the other side.

Uniqueness of the Transverse Ranges

Recently Baird, Morton and others (1974) and Baird, Baird, and Welay (1974) have assembled petrochemical and structural data within the Transverse Ranges and conclude that only a few tens of kilometers of right slip are required on the San Andreas fault zone in southern California. Their summary maps of chemical analyses and measurements of specific gravity cross the north- ern Peninsular Ranges and extend in- to the San Gabriel and San Bernar- dino Mountains. When contoured their data show an alignment of values parallel to the present struc- tural grain and topography, but dis- continuous across the San Andreas fault zone. In batholithic rocks, there is an irregular increase oceanward in Mg, Ca, and Fe and a corresponding decrease of K and Si. Maps showing the strike of foliation in pre-batholithic and batholithic rocks and of the strike of beds and trend of fold axes reveal as well the grain of the region. Baird, Morton, and others (1974) emphasize that the province has existed with nearly its same trend since well back in time, even before the Ter- tiary, and that rotation of blocks sufficient to bring the terrain back into rough alignment with the Sierra Nevada, Coast Ranges, and Peninsular Angles is untenable. They view the anomalous position of the Transverse Ranges Province as a severe problem in applying plate tectonic concepts as now understood to southern California.

The uniqueness of the Transverse Ranges in western North America today is not debatable but as high mountains they are the result of very young uplift during the last few millions of years accompanied by severe deformation (Dibblee, 1968; Crowell, 1971, 1973). Plio-Pleistocene sedimentary units throughout the extent of the Transverse Ranges are folded, faulted and now elevated. This very late deformation has been termed the "Pasadenian Orogeny" (Reed and Hollister, 1936). Some of the roughly east-west depositional and structural trends west of the San Andreas fault zone, such as those in lower and mid-Tertiary rocks in the Upper Cuyama Valley - Lockwood Valley region, are offset to the San Gabriel fault zone to the Soledad basin, and in turn to the Orocochia region (Crowell, 1962; Bohannon, this volume). Others may yet be recognized in the Chocolate Mountain area east of the Salton Sea, a region now under study but incompletely known so far. During Pleistocene time, north-south shortening of the Transverse Ranges was severe, accompanied by basement-rock deformation, so that older foliations at places were markedly steepened and the strike today of these planar structures approximately parallels that of the range. Perhaps this same style of basement-rock deformation and uplift and tilting of blocks, coupled with deep erosion, accounts as well for the rough alignment of specific-gravity values and chemical isopleths. Deep erosion results in higher specific gravity and Ca, Mg, and Fe values exposed at the surface. Until we have similar chemical and density data over the whole region extending from the southern Salinia province and Sierra Nevada, to the region flanking the Salton Trough, it is difficult to appraise the significance of a limited band of

data.

But even if we conclude that the Tejon, Soledad, and Orocochia terrains are disrupted parts of a once continuous terrain and have been displaced about 300 km, (180 mi.) several perplexing problems still face us. It is not clear how large blocks have moved through time, and especially in the region between Cajon and San Geronimo passes, nor how the San Gabriel fault zone joined the San Andreas in Pliocene time. The San Jacinto is a young branch of the system (Sharp, 1967), and it probably displaced the Malibu-Cucamonga fault to the Banning fault (Baird, Morton, and others, 1974), but these events took place after a major right slip on the San Gabriel fault zone. The through-going system is pictured as predating the opening of the Gulf of California and the Salton Trough.

Regional Tectonics

Near the Big Bend region of the San Andreas fault, in the north central part of the Transverse Ranges, the San Gabriel fault is connected directly with the San Andreas during Pliocene time and extended northwestward through the Coast Ranges (Crowell, 1950). Beginning a few million years ago, and probably directly following the opening of the Gulf of California and the Salton Trough on the south, the Big Bend developed and the San Gabriel strand was abandoned. The present main strand of the San Andreas fault, extending from the Big Bend to Cajon Pass along the south edge of the Mojave Desert and through the eastern San Gabriel Mountains, was strongly activated when the San Gabriel fault was abandoned. As the Big Bend deepened further, thrust faults both to the north and south originated. (1) On the north, the Pleistocene

ied mid-Tertiary strata across ly folded younger Cenozoic beds ath it, and (2) On the south the er Mountain thrust system em- ed gneissic basement upon over- ed Plio-Pleistocene strata near e the San Gabriel fault is over- ed by these beds. In this re- , earthquakes, triangulation ys and level lines show that White Wolf fault is even more ve than the San Andreas fault y, and in 1952 the Arvin-Tehach- and Bakersfield earthquakes rred on the White Wolf fault eshott, 1955). Structures in complex Big Bend region suggest a conjugate strain system is operating, in which there is gular north-south shortening, the history of the many faults as now understood suggests this conjugate system has only ated recently. The Big Pine and ck faults are now part of this ugate scheme, but in Pliocene they were separate and dis- faults, and far from their ent positions (Crowell, 1962, 5). They have different his- es, were born far apart at erent times, and have probably recently joined the conjugate em.

orthwest of the Big Bend, the se and displacement of the San eas fault are well established ar as the post-late Miocene ry is concerned. Miocene es and volcanic rocks, laid across the future trace of the t, have been displaced a total out 300 km (190 mi.) (Hall, ; Addicott, 1968; Huffman, 1972; an and others, 1973). In fact, istory and magnitude of this acement on the north lends ort to the 300 km (190 mi.) of ar right slip in southern Cal- ia. On the north, however, ay have been an earlier epi- of right slip of nearly the amount, bringing the total dis-

placement on the San Andreas fault zone here to about 550 km (340 mi.). The fossil edge of continental crust, for example, where it met rocks characteristic of the ocean floor, is apparently offset from the Big Bend region to near Point Arena northwest of San Francisco (Hill and Dibblee, 1953; Ross, 1970). This earlier episode is possibly recorded also in late Cretaceous - Paleocene conglomerates, now found west of the fault in the Pt. Arena region. Stones within these conglomerates appear to be offset from their source area east of the fault now near the Big Bend region (Wentworth, 1968; Ross, 1972, 1973). Although there may be other ways to explain these relations, ways that do not involve the San Andreas fault as we now know it, many California geologists tentatively conclude that the San Andreas fault north of the Big Bend has had two major intervals of activity: (1) one late in Cretaceous or early in Paleocene times, and (2) another beginning late in Miocene times and continuing to the present (Suppe, 1970).

In southern California, however, this earlier period of movement on the San Andreas system, which might double the total displacement, has not been recognized. Recent field studies in the southwestern desert preclude the possibility of major strands existing to the east of the present San Andreas (Haxel and Dillon, 1973). On the other hand, faults to the west, such as those underlying the Newport-Inglewood zone, may have played this role at the times required (Suppe, 1970; Hill, 1971; Crowell, 1973; Howell and others, 1974). Such a possible fault along the Newport-Inglewood zone will now lie deep below the middle and late Tertiary infilling of the Los Angeles basin so that data pertain-

ing to its early history is meagre (Hill, 1971; Yerkes and others, 1965; Yeats, 1973; Platt and Stuart, 1974). No acceptable scheme has yet been suggested to connect the San Andreas on the north to a deeply buried Newport-Inglewood fault on the south, or to any other southern fault, through the Transverse Ranges and across several major east-west trending fault zones, including the Malibu Coastal-Cucamonga system. We have therefore sidestepped this major problem, and have focussed attention on the San Andreas - San Gabriel - San Jacinto fault system to the east.

TECTONIC SUMMARY

The pliant crust of California is inexorably deforming across a broad and splintered belt where the Pacific lithospheric plate, moving relatively northwestward, meets the North American plate. In southern California at present, the San Andreas and San Jacinto faults are the principal discontinuities accommodating this relentless motion, as shown by earthquakes and measurements of crustal deformation and geomorphic evidence, but other sub-parallel faults to the east in the Mojave Desert and to the west across southern California and its subsea borderland are also active and somehow fit into the pattern. Major irregularities within this giant scheme result in squeezing to lift up the Transverse Ranges, stretching and sagging to form basins such as the Santa Barbara Channel and others offshore, and rifting to make the Salton Trough. Similar processes have doubtless operated in the geologic past across the region, but in addition, volcanism and plate-tectonic convergence and subduction have also taken place. The geologist's challenge is to work out the details of this historical panorama as far back into time as he can interpret data held within the

the rocks. Moreover, only the specific geologic details of structure and lithology in relation to tectonography, have direct significance for planning engineering works and other human undertakings. Tectonic studies are practically useful primarily in providing a predictive guide to detailed investigation

In southern California, the San Andreas fault system probably originated at the end of the Miocene, or about 12 m.y. ago. For 6 or 8 m.y., the San Gabriel fault zone was the principal strand of the system and probably joined the San Andreas fault proper in the Cajon Pass - San Geronimo Pass region. From this complex region it extended on southeastward into what is now the head of the Gulf of California, where the records interpret its tectonic setting at that time is at depth and obscure. It is not yet clear whether the San Andreas was a transform fault at that time, but beginning about 4 m.y. ago, it apparently played a transform role in the opening of the Gulf of California. As the Gulf opened, and Baja California and the Peninsular Ranges moved relatively northwest, movement on the San Andreas fault was vigorous between San Geronimo and Tejon passes, the San Gabriel strand abandoned, the San Jacinto fault became especially active as a subsidiary splay, and the Transverse Ranges were sharply compressed and uplifted.

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SEISMICITY ALONG THE SAN ANDREAS FAULT, SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA

By James A. Hileman
California Institute of Technology and
Seismological Laboratory
Pasadena, California, 91125

Thomas C. Hanks
Office of Earthquake Studies
U.S. Geological Survey
Menlo Park, California, 94025

ABSTRACT

The San Andreas fault of central California becomes a complex system of parallel fault branches in southern California. The most seismically active branch south of the Transverse Ranges is the San Jacinto fault, although all branches show evidence of Holocene movements. In addition to the San Andreas fault itself, four principal zones of seismicity in the southern California region can be defined from the distribution of current seismicity: San Jacinto fault zone, eastern Sierra front, northern Baja California, Transverse Ranges. The five largest earthquakes of the past 130 years in southern California have occurred in diverse geologic and tectonic environments and in each of the seismicity zones except the San Jacinto fault. Strip maps show the instrumental epicenters along the San Andreas fault for a period of 41 years. Both the historical and instrumental records are unlikely to be statistically complete, especially as indicators of the near-future occurrence of larger earthquakes.

INTRODUCTION

Within the framework of plate tectonics, the San Andreas fault is a transform fault, the locus of relative, horizontal motion between the Pacific and North American plates. In northern and central California, the San Andreas fault in fact bears considerable resemblance to the textbook descriptions of narrow, linear plate boundaries along which relative displacements occur with little or no deformation interior to the adjacent plates. As was the case in the great San Francisco earthquake of 1906, this relative plate motion may take place in major but infrequent seismic events. Or in the case of the Bear

Valley region of central California, preponderance of relative motion may be effected in a more continuous, aseismic manner. For long periods of time, relative displacements across certain fault elements simply do not occur, presently the case for the fault element broken by the 1906 earthquake. There seems little doubt, in view of the simplicity of this transform fault and a simple conservation of mass argument, that points along the San Andreas fault in central and northern California will all experience very nearly the same average rate of displacement and that the time interval required to obtain such an average is probably no more than several hundred years.

In southern California, however, the San Andreas fault exhibits considerable complexity. Amidst the great structural complications of the Transverse Ranges, the San Andreas fault bends significantly from its trend in central California and splays into a set of right-lateral, strike-slip elements. South of the Transverse Ranges, these elements include the Banning-Mission Creek, San Jacinto, Elsinore, and Newport-Inglewood faults and quite possibly one or more elements in the continental borderlands. The onshore members of this set, at least, have all been active in the Holocene, and all are nearly parallel to the trend of the parent fault north of the Transverse Ranges. They have not, however, been uniformly seismic in the historic record.

Indeed, the geological, seismological and structural complexities in southern California are such that there is even uncertainty which, if any, of these elements rightfully deserves the appellation San Andreas fault. Largely

geological reasons, the term is usually reserved for the most easterly of the faults, the Banning-Mission Creek fault, between the eastern end of San Geronimo and the Salton Sea. However, the great majority of seismic right-lateral, strike-slip motion between the Transverse Ranges and the Gulf of California known in the very short historic record has occurred along the San Jacinto fault. The extent that the San Andreas fault can be defined as the transform fault along which the plate motions occur, the San Jacinto fault is the more legitimate descendant to the parent name, at least at the present time. In any case, it seems likely that a San Andreas fault does not exist in southern California south of the Transverse Ranges than does the San Andreas fault system.

SEISMIC EARTHQUAKES OF THE HISTORIC RECORD

Figure 1 locates the larger earthquakes which have occurred in the southern California region since 1890. The seismic moment (M_0) of these earthquakes are all in excess of 10^{25} dyne-cm. as a physical measure of the strength of the earthquake, with a value equal to the product $\mu \bar{u} A$ where \bar{u} is the average displacement on the fault area A and μ is the shear modulus of the source region. The seismic moment may be obtained from field observations of the deformed surface or the elastic radiation pattern by the earthquake. An empirical technique of estimating M_0 from the magnitude distribution of Intensity VI has been described by Hanks and others (1975). A significant advantage of M_0 over magnitude (M_L) as a measure of earthquake strength is that it provides a direct estimate of the relative seismic displacement for a specified fault segment through the cumulative sum of displacements for earthquakes occurring along it. In southern California, earthquakes with $M_0 \geq 10^{25}$ dyne-cm always have local magnitude $M_L \geq 6.0$; but earthquakes with $M_L \geq 6.0$ do not always possess $M_0 \geq 10^{25}$ dyne-cm. Figure 2 displays the

$M_L \geq 5$ seismicity of the region from 1932 through 1972.

The overwhelming contribution to right-lateral, strike-slip displacement known in the historic record of southern California arose in conjunction with the Fort Tejon (1857) earthquake. Displacements as large as 10 meters are inferred, and the total length of rupture extended along the San Andreas fault at least from Cajon Pass to a poorly defined point north of the Carrizo Plain (Wallace, 1968). In the twentieth century, this segment of the San Andreas fault, however, has been noticeably aseismic. Apart from it, Figures 1 and 2 define four principal seismic zones in the southern California region.

San Jacinto Fault Zone

Fifteen of the 36 earthquakes in Figure 1 have occurred along or can reasonably be associated with a seismic zone defined by the San Jacinto fault, sub-parallel fault elements in the Imperial Valley (Imperial, Superstition Hills, and Superstition Mountain faults) and the apparent extension of the San Jacinto fault from Cerro Prieto to the Gulf of California. This nearly straight, nearly continuous zone of seismic strain release has dominated right-lateral seismic slip south of the Transverse Ranges since at least 1890, geologic and tectonic details of local fault continuity notwithstanding.

Eastern Sierra Front

The Owens Valley (1872) and Walker Pass (1946) earthquakes have occurred along a northerly trending zone of seismic strain release paralleling the Sierra front. There is some suggestion in the earthquakes instrumentally recorded since 1932 that this seismic zone continues southwesterly along the Tehachapi mountains to their intersection with the San Andreas fault, thereby including the Kern County (1952)

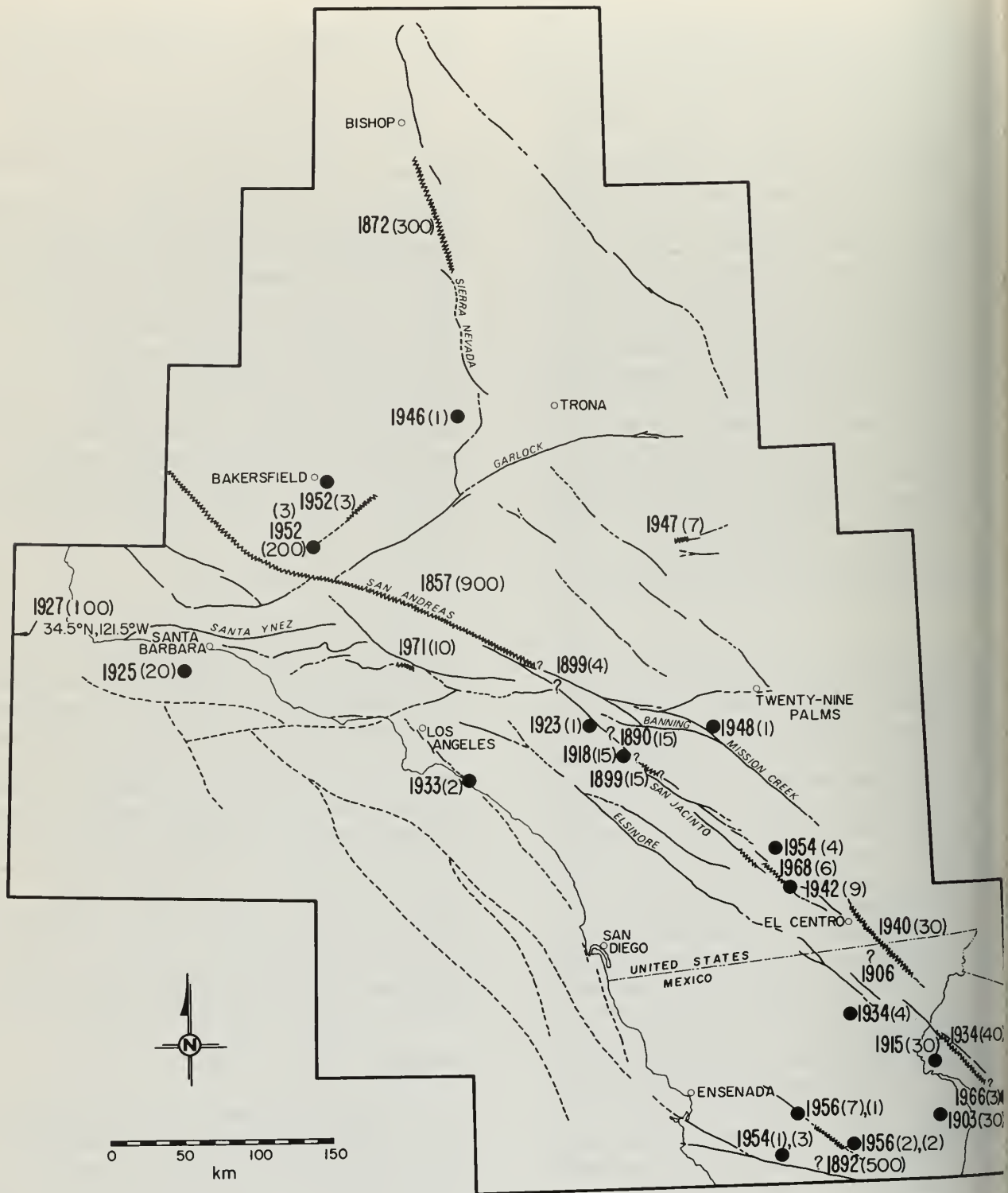


Figure 1. The larger earthquakes in the southern California region since 1857. All earthquakes shown have seismic moments (M_0) of 10^{25} dyne-cm or greater. M_0 values are shown in parentheses in units of 10^{25} dyne-cm.

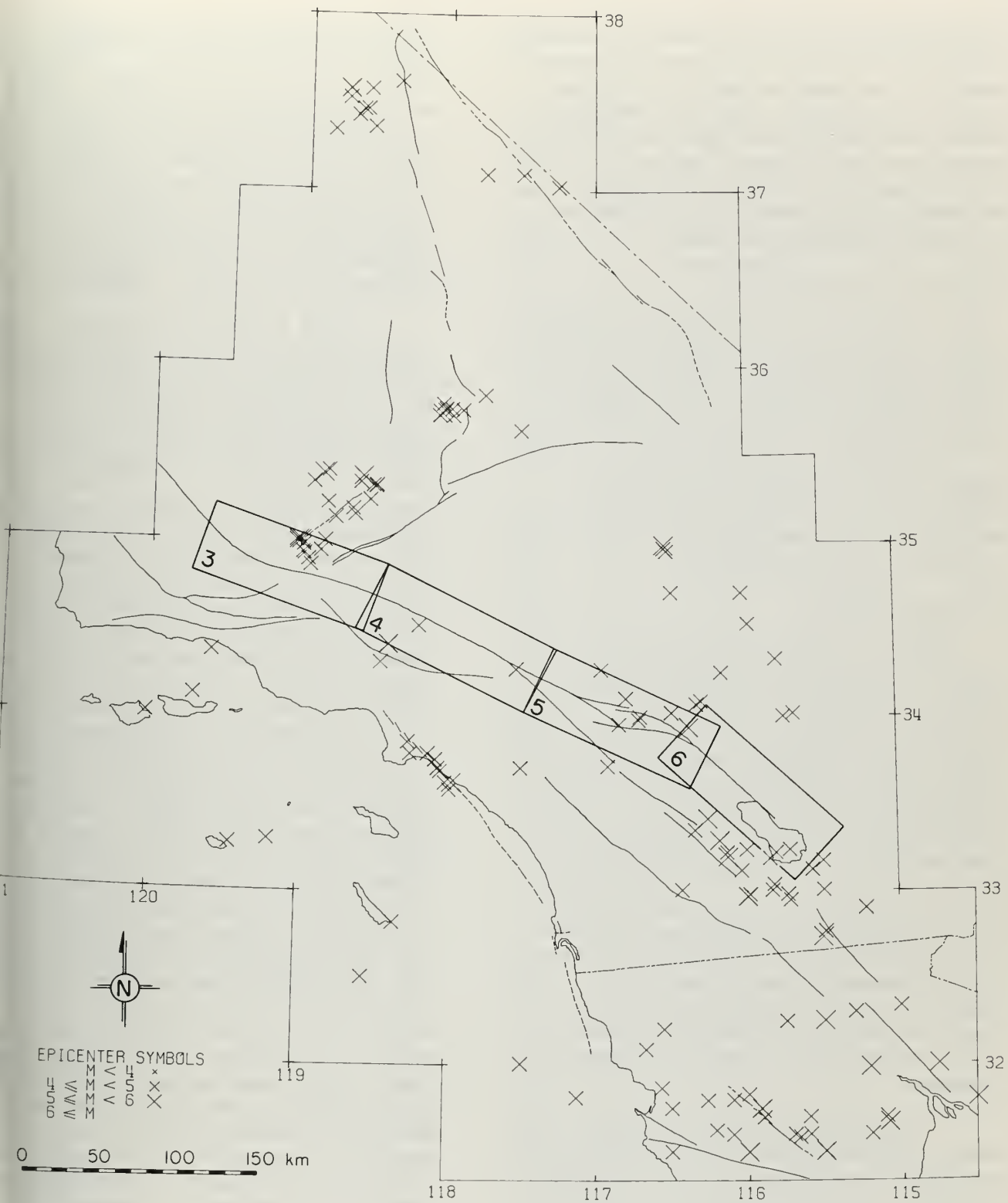


Figure 2. All earthquakes of magnitude (M_L) 5.0 or greater in the southern California region, 1932 through 1972. Boxes show the areas enlarged in Figures 3 through 6.

earthquake and its aftershocks. Whether a zone of continuous tectonic deformation should be correlated with this larger zone is not clear, since earthquakes of both normal (1872) and reverse (1952) mechanisms have occurred along it. This zone is part of a more extensive zone defined by Ryall and others (1966) as the Ventura-Winnemucca zone.

Northern Baja California

The sequence of earthquakes in 1954, possibly on the Agua Blanca fault, and 1956 on the San Miguel fault in northwestern Baja California constitutes a major episode of seismic strain release in the southern California region. The large 1892 earthquake is inferred to be located in this region, but it is impossible to associate it directly with either of these two faults.

Transverse Ranges

A diffuse zone of seismicity occurs within the Transverse Ranges province from the Little San Bernardino mountains to beyond Point Arguello. This seismic zone, however, cannot be sharply defined, even with the instrumentally recorded seismicity since 1932. Large areas of the Transverse Ranges west of the San Andreas fault currently have only low seismicity. The occurrence of the December 12, 1812, earthquake, which strongly affected areas adjacent to the Santa Barbara Channel, and the possible association of the Point Arguello (1927) earthquake with the Transverse Ranges leave little doubt about the seismic potential of this province.

Of equal interest are those fault zones and tectonic elements that display geological evidence of tectonic deformation in the Holocene but which are currently nearly aseismic. Of these, the most striking is the Elsinore fault, which has not generated a $M_0 \geq 10^{25}$ dyne-cm earthquake in this century. The current assessment of the

seismic potential of the Newport-Inglewood fault primarily reflects the occurrence of the Long Beach (1933) earthquake and its aftershocks. Part of the San Andreas fault of interest in this volume, the Banning-Mission Creek fault southeast of San Geronimo Pass is also relatively aseismic. In this century only one $M_0 \geq 10^{25}$ dyne-cm earthquake has occurred along this fault, the Desert Hot Springs (1948) earthquake.

As noted by Allen and others (1966), the available historic record of earthquake occurrence in southern California is not an adequate measure of the longer term spatial and temporal seismicity patterns of the recent past and, most probably, of the near future. Even in the four principal seismic zones discussed above, no $M_0 \geq 10^{25}$ dyne-cm earthquake of the historic record is known to have affected the same fault area more than once, except in the course of an aftershock sequence. Long segments of otherwise active faults have experienced little if any seismic strain release. Of particular interest in this context are the diverse geological and tectonic environments in which the five largest earthquakes of the past 130 years have occurred. These events are the Fort Tejon (1857), Owens Valley (1872), Baja California (1892), Point Arguello (1927), and Kern County (1927) earthquakes. Significant components of strike-slip, normal, and thrust faulting have been reported for the 1857, 1872, and 1952 shocks, respectively. While the precise locations and faulting mechanisms for the 1892 and 1927 earthquakes are unknown, it is clear that the spatial occurrence of the five earthquakes is not limited to any particular geologic province, mode of tectonic accommodation, or geographic locality. Perhaps more importantly there is no reason to suspect that such trend is presently developing and should be expected to develop on a scale comparable to that of the available observations.

SEISMICITY ALONG THE SAN ANDREAS FAULT

tailed strip maps showing the distribution of earthquake epicenters and near the San Andreas fault are given in Figures 3-6, and their relationships to the general southern California geography are indicated in Figure 2. In these maps, only a few of the more prominent faults are shown and they are somewhat schematic, since their purpose is only to provide a frame of reference for the seismicity. The epicenters shown are those obtained by the Seismological Laboratory of the California Institute of Technology at Pasadena using a network of seismographic stations in southern California.

The Southern California Seismographic Network has been improved many times since its inception in 1927 with corresponding improvements in the accuracy of epicenter locations. Most earthquakes since 1970 are located to about 1 km accuracy. For earlier events, the uncertainties may range from 5 to 15 km. For larger earthquakes, $M_L \geq 5 \frac{1}{2}$, and for carefully studied aftershocks, the uncertainties may be less than 5 km. In studies of seismicity, the location uncertainties of particular earthquakes have been found in Hileman and others, (1974). Up to 1961, epicenters were determined by graphical means and were reported to the nearest minute only, resulting in artificial north-south and east-west alignments of epicenters which are particularly apparent in Figure 5.

Major Earthquakes, $M_L \geq 5$

Table 1 lists all the earthquakes with $M_L \geq 5.0$ which have occurred within the limits of the strip-map areas. Of these earthquakes, only 12 are close enough to the San Andreas system to suggest a direct relationship. Nine of these are associated with the 1952 Kern County earthquake and its aftershock series. Three are near the south end of the Salton Sea, and one is in the San Bernardino mountains.

Carrizo Plain to Lake Hughes (Figure 3)

Along the segment of the San Andreas fault shown in Figure 3, the strike of the fault changes nearly 35° , from about $N43^\circ W$ across the Carrizo Plains to about $N78^\circ W$ through fault-controlled Cuddy Valley. Such an abrupt angular change in a strike-slip fault certainly complicates the movements of rock masses in the vicinity of this bend. Although portions of the Big Pine, Garlock, and San Gabriel faults are shown here, the reader should refer to the geologic map accompanying this volume to appreciate the complexity of subsidiary faults near this change in the fault's trend.

The 1952 earthquake, $M = 7.7$, which ruptured the White Wolf fault and the associated aftershock series lasting more than 10 years accounts for most of the seismicity shown in Figure 3. The aftershock area was not aseismic prior to 1952, and Wesson and Ellsworth (1973) have pointed out that small earthquake activity before 1952 was higher in the epicentral area than in either the surrounding areas or along the nearby portions of the San Andreas fault. All of the $M_L \geq 5$ earthquakes in Figure 3 occurred in this aftershock series, with the exception of the southernmost epicenter which indicates an earthquake in 1941.

The few scattered, low-magnitude events along and near the San Andreas fault itself give little indication of the seismological significance of this portion of the fault. Even micro-earthquake activity as measured by Brune and Allen (1967) is very low here. The 1857 Fort Tejon earthquake ruptured this segment with an earthquake comparable to the 1906 San Francisco earthquake, all of the segment shown here being broken at that time. In 1916, an earthquake of approximately $5 - 5 \frac{1}{2}$ magnitude occurred in the vicinity of Fort Tejon and apparently along the San Andreas fault.

Table 1

Earthquakes of $M_L \geq 5.0$ and Within the Strip Map
Areas Shown in Figure 2

<u>Date</u> YY MM DD	<u>Time</u> HH:MM:SS	<u>Lat.</u>	<u>Long.</u>	<u>Mag.</u>	<u>Quality</u>
351024	14:48:07.6	34-06	116-48	5.1	A
410921	19:53:07.2	34-52	118-56	5.2	A
421022	01:50:38.0	33-14	115-43	5.5	C
430829	03:45:13.0	34-16	116-58	5.5	C
440612	10:45:34.7	33-58.6	116-43.2	5.1	A
440612	11:16:36.0	33-59.7	116-42.7	5.3	A
460928	07:19:09.0	33-57	116-51	5.0	B
470724	22:10:46.0	34-01	116-30	5.5	A
470725	00:46:31.0	34-01	116-30	5.0	C
470725	06:19:49.0	34-01	116-30	5.2	C
470726	02:49:41.0	34-01	116-30	5.1	C
481204	23:43:17.0	33-56	116-23	6.5	A
520721	11:52:14.0	35-00	119-01	7.7	A
520721	12:02:00.0	35-00	119-02	5.6	D
520721	12:05:31.0	35-00	119-00	6.4	D
570721	12:19:36.0	34-57	118-52	5.3	A
520801	13:04:30.0	34-54	118-57	5.1	A
520823	10:09:07.1	34-31.2	118-11.9	5.0	A
540112	23:33:49.0	35-00	119-01	5.9	A
540523	23:52:43.0	34-59	118-59	5.1	A
570425	21:57:38.7	33-13.0	115-48.5	5.2	B
570425	22:24:12.0	33-11	115-51	5.1	C
611115	05:38:55.5	34-56.5	118-59.2	5.0	B
630301	00:25:57.9	34-55.9	118-58.5	5.0	B
700912	14:30:53.0	34-16.2	117-32.4	5.4	A

Quality: A, B, C, D denote, respectively, < 5, 5, 15, > 15 km estimated location uncertainties



Figure 3. Seismicity along the San Andreas fault, Carrizo Plain to Lake Hughes.

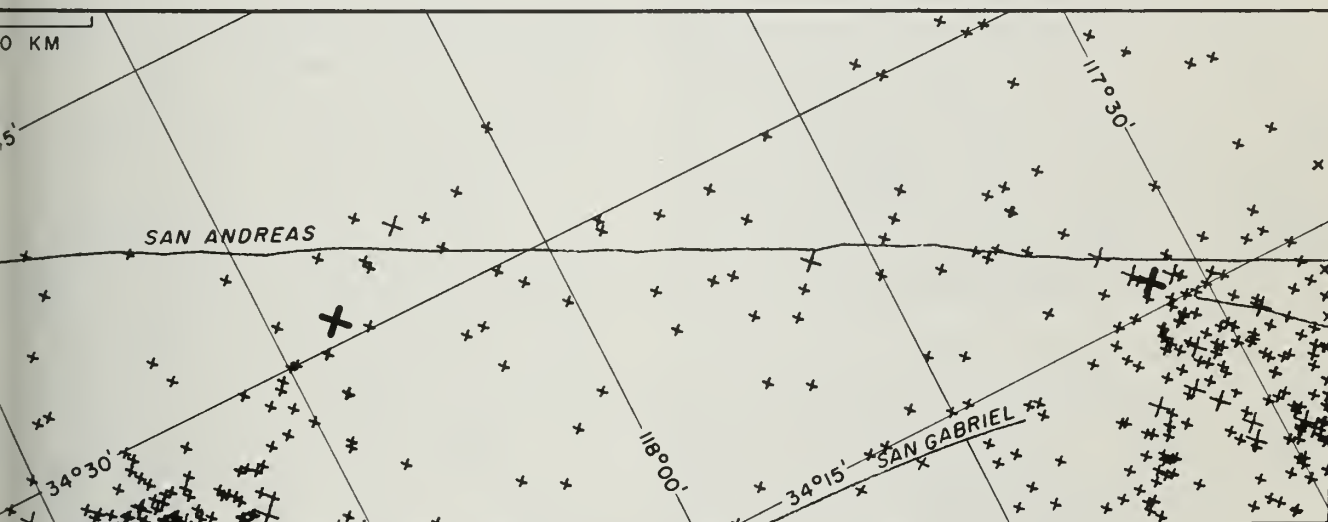


Figure 4. Seismicity along the San Andreas fault, Lake Hughes to Cajon Pass.

EPICENTER SYMBOLS

$M < 4$	x
$4 \leq M < 5$	X
$5 \leq M < 6$	⊗
$6 \leq M$	⊗

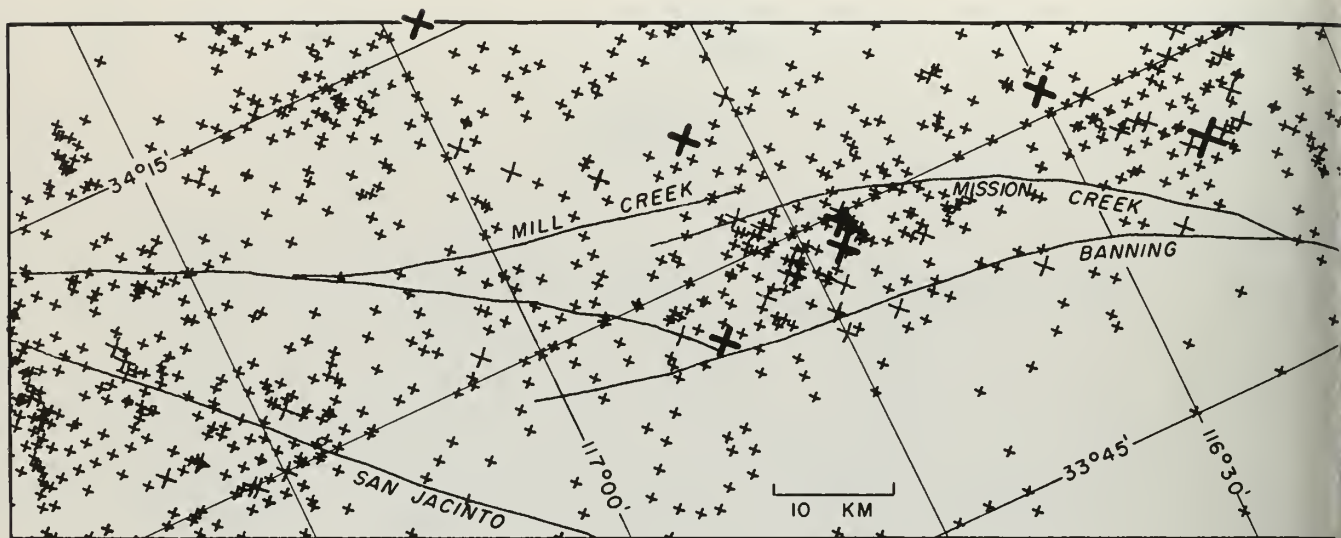


Figure 5. Seismicity along the San Andreas fault system, Cajon Pass to Desert Hot Springs.

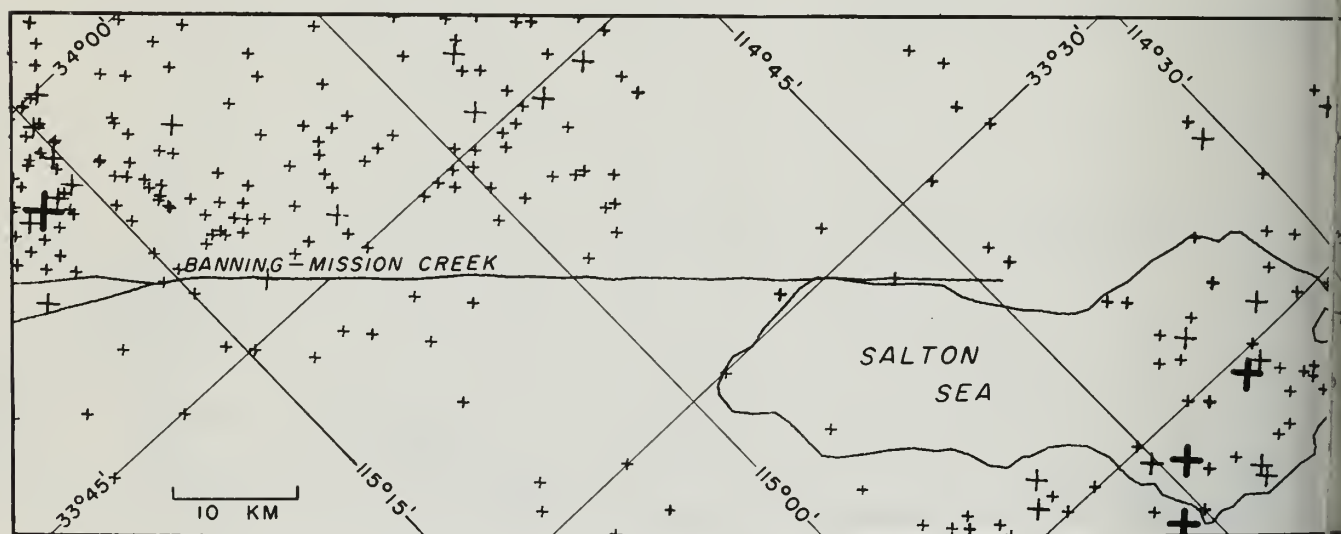


Figure 6. Seismicity along the San Andreas fault system, Desert Hot Springs to Salton Sea.

EPICENTER SYMBOLS

$M < 4$	x
$4 \leq M < 5$	X
$5 \leq M < 6$	XX
$6 \leq M$	XXX

outh of the trace of the San Andreas t there is some rather diffuse micity that seems to persist through nearby parts of the Transverse Ranges, gh only a small portion is included . In the upper right corner of Figure s the westernmost portion of the ve desert, which is practically aseis- The left-lateral Garlock fault shows little seismicity as it nears the Andreas fault, but further to the east, beyond this figure, there are l earthquakes near the trace.

Hughes to Cajon Pass (Figure 4)

he portion of the San Andreas fault n in Figure 4 forms the boundary een the San Gabriel mountains to the h and the Mojave desert to the north. two earthquakes of $M_L \geq 5$ have been rded instrumentally in this area, ough the 1857 earthquake did rupture or nearly all, of the San Andreas t shown. A $M_L=5.0$ earthquake occurred he San Gabriel mountains in August, but the rupture was probably outside San Andreas zone itself, providing dip of the fault is near vertical . In September of 1970, a $M_L=5.4$ hquake occurred near the northern end he San Jacinto fault, where it ely approaches the San Andreas fault. cal mechanism solution for this k indicated thrust motion on a plane king nearly east-west and dipping to south (Carl Newton, unpub. data).

his particular local area where the Jacinto fault splays off from the San eas fault is the site of a fundamental ge in the characteristics of the San eas system. To the northwest, all the to Cape Mendocino, the San Andreas is ther well-defined fault zone seldom than a few km wide. And for 250 km he northwest, essentially the rupture he 1857 Fort Tejon earthquake, there currently only low levels of seis- ty along the fault itself. To the east, the San Andreas system branches a number of parallel strands as dis- ed earlier. Seismic activity is

moderately high to the southeast particu- larly along the San Jacinto branch, and these epicenters are evident at the right of Figure 4.

The activity shown in the lower right hand corner is part of the moderately high level of seismicity in the Fontana area. The concentration of epicenters near the lower left corner are the northernmost earthquakes of the aftershock series of the 1971 San Fernando earthquake. There is also rather diffuse activity through- out the San Gabriel mountains (south of the San Andreas fault) and in the eastern Mojave desert (upper right portion of the figure).

Cajon Pass to Desert Hot Springs (Figure 5)

Figure 5 shows the San Andreas fault system in the vicinity of San Gorgonio pass where the system comprises the San Andreas, Mill Creek, Mission Creek, and Banning faults. The San Jacinto fault splays off farther north near Cajon pass. For this area also, the reader should refer to the more detailed geologic map accompanying this volume, as well as Allen (1957), to appreciate the complexity of the fault relationships.

There have been no great historic earthquakes along this portion of the San Andreas system as there have been to the northwest in 1857 and 1906. The largest known earthquake along this portion of the system is the 1948 Desert Hot Springs earthquake with a magnitude of 6.5 - shown in the upper right of the figure. This earthquake probably occurred on the Mission Creek fault, since the aftershock zone was parallel to the fault and to the north of it, first motion studies constrain the motion to be a combination of thrusting and right-lateral motion, and surface exposures of the fault indicate about 62° dip to the northeast (Richter and others, 1958). Sixteen months earlier, in July 1947, and about 15 km northwest near Morongo valley, a series

of earthquakes occurred which were apparently also on the Mission Creek fault. The largest earthquake was $M_L=5.5$, but three others of $M_L \geq 5$ also occurred so that this sequence was more like a swarm of earthquakes than a mainshock followed by smaller and smaller aftershocks. Two closely spaced earthquakes with magnitudes 5.1 and 5.3 occurred within a half hour on June 12, 1944, in the area between the Mission Creek and Banning faults. Dehlinger (1952) concluded that these consisted primarily of thrusting motion. Two other $M_L \geq 5$ earthquakes are close to faults of the San Andreas system, but their fault relationships are not clear - one, 1946, is near the intersection of the traces of the San Andreas and Banning faults and the other, 1935, is north of the Mill Creek fault near San Geronimo mountain. A $M_L=5.5$ earthquake in 1943 is shown at the top edge of Figure 5; this is in the Big Bear Lake area and is not directly associated with the San Andreas system.

Smaller earthquakes are numerous in the area shown in Figure 5. Concentrations of activity are present along the San Jacinto fault zone (lower left), between the Mission Creek and Banning faults (center), and in the vicinity of the Desert Hot Springs and Morongo valley earthquakes (upper right). These concentrations, as well as the more widely scattered activity along the faults, reflect complex structural processes in this zone where relative displacement is being accommodated on many splaying branches of the fault system. Activity in the upper left of the figure is occurring within the San Bernardino mountains and relates only indirectly to the San Andreas fault zone.

Desert Hot Springs to Salton Sea (Figure 6)

Figure 6 shows the southern extent of the trace of the Banning-Mission Creek branch of the San Andreas fault zone. This branch has traditionally been considered as the "San Andreas" fault,

although the San Jacinto fault, not shown in the figure, is the current locus of most of the seismic slip south of the Transverse Ranges. It is generally agreed that the Banning-Mission Creek fault continues on trend farther south east, concealed under recent alluvium but the active segment probably stops near the south end of the Salton Sea.

The only large events shown in Figure 6 are the 1948 Desert Hot Springs earthquake at the left which was discussed above, and three events in the active segment at the south end of the Salton Sea in 1942 and 1957. The 1942 event, $M_L=5$, near the center of the lake, occurred only 9 1/2 hours after a $M_L=6.5$ earthquake 40 km to the southwest. The two events near the edge of the lake, $M_L=5.1$, occurred within a half hour in 1957.

Very little current seismicity is evident along this portion of the Banning-Mission Creek fault. In 1968, approximately one cm of fresh offset was observed near the north end of the Salton Sea shortly after the Borrego Mountain earthquake occurred on the San Jacinto fault (Allen and others, 1972) 70 km to the southwest. The epicenters near the south end of the Salton Sea are part of the generally high level of activity in the Imperial valley. This activity is now being studied in detail using a network operated cooperatively by the California Institute of Technology and the U.S. Geological Survey. The concentration of epicenters northeast of the Banning-Mission Creek fault is in the Little San Bernardino mountains and is indirectly related to the San Andreas system as are the other elements of the Transverse Ranges.

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ENGINEERING GEOLOGY AND THE SAN ANDREAS FAULT

By James E. Slosson & Perry Y. Amimoto
California Division of Mines and Geology

The effects of recent earthquakes in the United States, such as the San Fernando earthquake of 1971 and earthquakes elsewhere in the world, have kindled great interest and in some cases great horror and imagination. As an example, in 1969, emotional and irrational philosophies and "doomsday" predictions of a great earthquake lead to the concern, in some circles, that California would slip into the Pacific Ocean. During 1968 and 1969 prior to this "doomsday" event--that was to occur during the Easter week of 1969--many people in California prepared for this "doomsday" event in a variety of ways, and some even moved out of the State. This fear, based on misunderstanding, prevailed to the extent that even the news media were constantly reporting the predicted demise of California, contributing to the alarm felt by many people. Reports emerged saying that Howard Hughes had purchased land in Nevada because that State was going to become the shoreline, or beach area, or the Pacific. This fear probably resulted in part from Hollywood's renditions of the 1906 San Francisco earthquake and other great disasters, and the B.B.C. television program about earthquakes in combination with recent cultural developments dealing with psychic and astrological phenomena.

The predictions were appalling to those of us in science who believe that such a disaster is impossible. But even more appalling was the fact that people could become so hysterical over a fear that was so completely unsupported scientifically. Those of us trained in geology, seismology, and physics were aware of the fallacy of this doomsday prediction, but found it difficult to convince many students and others. It was also difficult to convince those who left California that Idaho, Montana, and Utah could also undergo severe earthquakes. On the other hand, aside from 1968-69 (doomsday predictions after the Santa Rosa earthquake), and immediately after the 1971 earthquake

(San Fernando), it has been very difficult to convince the public, the politicians, the press, and the students that earthquakes will occur in California to an extent that we should properly plan for these events. It is often difficult to convince public administrators, elected officials, the news media, academia, non-geologist citizens, and even some geologists, that earthquakes will occur with sufficient frequency and intensity to be of concern. Fortunately, some do so with the result that codes, regulations, and procedures have been developed and improved over the last half-century.

Most of the development and improvement of codes and regulations have been kept to catastrophes such as the Long Beach earthquake of 1933, the Alaska earthquake of 1964, and the San Fernando earthquake of 1971. Earthquakes in other areas of the world have also provided data to assist engineers and geologists in better understanding the causes and effects of earthquakes. The articles related to legislation in the January and February 1975 issues of CALIFORNIA GEOLOGY, California Division of Mines and Geology Special Publication 45, "Meeting the Earthquake Challenge," and the article by Slosson and Hauge in the 1973 Association of Engineering Geologists Special Publication, illustrate some of the patterns of interest in legislation related to seismic safety.

The February 1975 issue of CALIFORNIA GEOLOGY points out the relationship between the number of earthquake and seismicity related legislative bills introduced and those passed between 1968 and 1974. The analysis clearly shows that public interest immediately following a disaster has an effective control over legislation. This pattern is analogous to public request for a traffic stop sign or signal following a serious auto accident. Another very important message in the February article is that the emotional impact after an

often generates an over-reaction and produces legislation that may or may not be beneficial and effective.

Geologists should keep concepts and facts related to earthquakes and seismicity within perspective and attempt at times to equate all of the hazards and problems in proper context. A recent introductory geology text indicated that people in the United States have taken a fatalistic view about earthquakes. This point of discussion is generally detrimental to scientific and engineering progress. Despite some views, one has only to note the losses within the United States and losses in other countries (with the exception, possibly, of recent earthquakes in Japan) to learn that even with some seismic comings in building codes and in recognition of geologic hazards, the United States still has a very good record compared to damage and loss of life from earthquakes. It is estimated that less than 2000 lives have been lost due to earthquakes in the United States in the past 200 years. This loss when compared to the great death toll from single earthquakes that have occurred in such places as Peru, Agadir, Pakistan, Turkey, Mexico, China, and Japan, reveals the effectiveness of earthquake codes and regulations in this country.

Loss of life from other hazards should also be considered when discussing earthquake risks. As an example, the one year loss of life resulting from murders in Los Angeles County in 1974 was over 1600, nearly equal to the number killed by earthquakes in the United States during the past 200 years. Other examples, which should be equated when considering risk, are the approximately 4500 lives lost in one year as a result of motorcycle accidents or the approximately 60,000 lives lost each year from auto accidents--at least 1/3 attributed to drunk drivers. In addition, deaths in the United States from natural hazards such as hurricane, tornado, flood, and fire far exceed the deaths caused by earthquakes. However, we must diligently pursue seismicity.

It is significant that most seismologists, as well as the public, are concerned about the next magnitude 8± earthquake along the San Andreas. Those involved in seismic safety and/or earthquake engineering know that there is a need for better basic knowledge, better technology, and better codes. The research being conducted by the Earthquake Engineering Research Institute, the applied technology phase of the National Science Foundation Program, the California Institute of Technology, the campuses of the University of California at Berkeley, Los Angeles, Riverside, San Diego, Santa Barbara, and Santa Cruz, Stanford University, and the University of Southern California is improving the "state of the art" in earthquake engineering, applied seismology, and engineering geology. This Special Report, a joint effort by the Cordilleran Section of the Geological Society of America and the California Division of Mines and Geology to emphasize this problem, is an excellent example of people with various scientific interests pooling their information and working towards a better understanding of earthquakes and seismic safety.

The presence of the San Andreas fault, as well as other "active" faults in California, is the reason that California is called "earthquake country," and we can be sure that there will be damaging earthquakes in the future. The San Andreas fault system traverses both the San Francisco Bay region and the Los Angeles-Southern California region where 58 percent of the State's population of 20 million people live. A person living in California should expect to experience at least 3 moderate earthquakes approximately as large as the Long Beach, Bakersfield, San Fernando, or Santa Rosa quakes during his lifetime, and possibly one major earthquake the size of the San Francisco, Fort Tejon or Owens Valley quakes (Slosson, lecture, USC 1974). In order to survive such earthquakes and reduce losses, we must understand the earthquake-causing mechanism; the geographic location of the major active faults; the energy release on earth materials (such as liquefaction, landsliding, soil collapse and rock fall); and the

effects of earthquakes on engineered structures.

The real and difficult challenge is that of being able to understand the cause and effect of earthquakes and then to convey this knowledge and information to the engineer and architect in understandable terminology so that he can implement safe and proper design. The engineer and architect must be presented with this information in a straightforward and, whenever possible, quantitative manner. It is then the engineer's or architect's responsibility to design the structure, whether it is a high rise building, hospital, school, power plant, or dam, for the site's geologic conditions so the structure can resist the anticipated seismic conditions. The very apparent need is for the geologist/seismologist to form a cooperative or "team" effort with the engineers and architects to develop a better understanding of the causes and effects and in turn to work toward the optimum in land use planning and design.

It is important that the geologist/seismologist retain a clear perspective of the problem being analyzed and provide the data that the engineers need. The geologist must not become emotional about earthquakes and oblivious to the other many natural hazards. The geologist must also refrain from placing financial organizational gains above public safety as eloquently described by Mason Hill in CALIFORNIA GEOLOGY, December 1974, "Role of Geologists in Evaluating Seismic Risks". An example of the basic content of a geologic/seismic report was presented by Perry Amimoto in his article entitled "Review of New Hospital Sites for Seismic Safety" (May 1974, CALIFORNIA GEOLOGY). This article was specifically prepared with reference to geologic/seismic reports for hospitals.

The San Andreas fault presents a difficult challenge to geologists and seismologists, because it can be assumed that urban development and construction will continue in land areas affected by the San Andreas fault system.

The incorporation of geologic/seismic knowledge into the preparation of land use plans and the design of engineered structures is long overdue as can be demonstrated by many examples of improper or poor design and/or planning. All have viewed schools, hospitals, major buildings, fire stations, and other important or critical structures on the traces of active or potentially active faults or on adjacent earth materials that will produce adverse effects, such as liquefaction or landsliding, during an earthquake. Examples of such errors can be viewed while following the guide (such as this Special Report) published for the field trips of the 1975 Geological Society of America Cordilleran Section annual meeting. Some good examples of these are the Devore Elementary School, the fire stations along the San Andreas fault, the Wrightwood area and Leona Valley, the Interstate 10 and 15 interchange bridge near San Bernardino, as well as nearby hotels and schools, restaurants and more at Gorman, and many others.

Luckily, urban development along immediately adjacent to the San Andreas fault in Southern California has not been as intense. However, urban sprawl is pushing towards the San Andreas fault and other active faults in Southern California, and economic and social pressures are appealing for the development of areas where seismic hazards can be critical. More intense development along the San Andreas fault and other dangerous faults has already occurred in the San Francisco Bay area. Noteworthy reference to this condition and related problems has been made in U.S. Geological Survey Circular 690 entitled "Seismic Hazards and Land-Use Planning" and Circular 701 entitled "Goals, Strategies and Tasks of the Earthquake Hazard Reduction Program." Both of these circulars should be required reading for every practicing or academic geologist involved in geology/seismology related to seismic safety. The trend of legislation and public opinion is such that geologists and seismologists now have the opportunity to be a part of the "team" and contribute to the processes of land-use planning and design of engineered structures.

Recent legislation in California has increased the input of geologic and seismic data. Assembly Bill Number 2300 in 1970 mandated the use of the Uniform Building Code. More recent legislation dealing with changes in the California Administrative Code have mandated that all editions of the Uniform Building Code, including Chapters 23, 26, 29, and 70, be adopted and enforced by cities and counties. Additional examples of bills that call for the implementation of up-to-date techniques by professional geologists and seismologists are SB 351 (1971) which requires that all cities and counties include a Seismic Safety Element and a Geologic Safety Element within their General Plan; SB 479 (1971) and SB 689 (1972) requires that geologic analysis of building sites be prepared, SB 519 (1972) requires the preparation of geologic/seismic reports for all hospital sites (May 1974 CALIFORNIA GEOLOGY); and SB 689 (1972) requires the preparation of geologic reports for building sites within Seismic Hazard Studies Zones bounding designated faults (see January, February, March, and December 1974 CALIFORNIA GEOLOGY).

These legislative mandates have hopefully awakened Californians to the State's present seismic hazards and generally alerted geologists and seismologists to their professional responsibilities. Professional geologists and seismologists must keep these responsibilities, obligations, and liabilities in proper perspective and recognize that there are, in addition, other hazards, other dangers, other worries that concern the public. Technical data, conclusions, and recommendations must be presented to planners, engineers, architects, public officials, the public, and the press in a form that can be easily understood by the lay geologist. Geologists must be accurate, thorough, and lucid in their reports and must stay up-to-date in their presentation and application of geologic knowledge and

It is recommended that all geologists and seismologists preparing or reviewing geologic/seismic reports or seismic safety reports acquaint them-

selves with CDMG Note #37, "Guidelines for Geologic/Seismic Reports," Map Sheet 23, "Maximum Credible Rock Acceleration Map," and Preliminary Report 13, State of California, Preliminary Fault and Geologic Map."

In conclusion there are some very interesting philosophical issues that warrant re-consideration and re-analysis if we are to solve the many problems related to earthquakes, fault activity, and seismic safety. Some of these questionable assumptions are;

1. The authoritative assumption that the Newport-Inglewood fault or its branches will not rupture to the surface (or produce surface rupture);
2. A fault will always rupture where it ruptured last--even though there may be a wide fault zone.
3. The method of field mapping that has been taught by some colleges and universities that you should not map a fault unless you and others can confirm displacement.
4. Earthquake magnitudes can be accurately predicted by measuring the length of the fault and then utilizing the formula $L/2$.

These items, I believe, have allowed or caused some investigators to assume or infer geologic/seismic conditions about a site without adequate analysis. Such inadequate analysis has led, in some cases, to erroneous conclusions and recommendations.

Education is to get you where you can start to learn.

--George Aiken

THE CALIFORNIA STATE WATER PROJECT AND THE SAN ANDREAS FAULT

By Laurence B. James and Paul W. Morrison
State of California
Department of Water Resources
Sacramento, California 95814

ABSTRACT

The earthquake engineering program conducted in connection with this project included special studies of San Andreas fault leading to (1) the selection of a route for the California Aqueduct which crosses this and other active faults at or near ground surface and (2) the adoption of aseismic design criteria which are considerably more conservative than those used for any previous water project.

Studies were undertaken to develop a better understanding of San Andreas fault, its habits, displacements, and the ground motions generated during its earthquakes. Sixty-five accelerographs were placed on and near select facilities to record future strong shocks; a network of sensitive seismographs was established to alert operations personnel immediately of earthquakes occurring at or near critical structures; tectonic deformations were and continue to be monitored to investigate possible adverse effects on the low gradient of the aqueduct and on the bearings of major pumping units; and special instruments including tiltmeters, pore pressure and stress cells, and force-balance accelerometers were installed at facilities that are located in exceptionally seismically active areas.

In addition to its contribution to the planning and design of this project, the earthquake engineering program is expected to yield records during future

strong earthquakes which will advance the state-of-the-art of earthquake engineering in general leading in particular to improved techniques for the design of facilities for water projects.

INTRODUCTION

The State Water Project of California consists of a complex of reservoirs and aqueducts for the purpose of capturing and storing surplus stream flow in Northern California and conveying it to areas of deficient water supply. Construction of the initial facilities has included 20 reservoirs, 5 power plants, 16 pumping plants, and 1,100 km of aqueduct.

Major elements of the project consist of the 235 meter high Oroville Dam (the highest in the United States); A.D. Edmonston Pumping Plant (which boosts water higher than any plant in the world); and Edward Hyatt underground generating facilities (one of the largest in the nation). The project is near completion. Its total cost will amount to about \$3 billion. Almost 90 percent of this expenditure will be reimbursed to bond holders through revenues from future water and power sales.

During the peak period of planning and construction, 134 earth scientists were employed including 128 engineering geologists, 2 geophysicists, 2 seismologists, and 2 geochemists. Over a period of 21 years, the staff investigated dam and reservoir sites; routes for canals, pipe

, and tunnels; and foundations of power plants and pumping stations. Much of this effort was devoted to the study of earthquake problems related to the San Andreas fault. Shown on Figure 1 of the State Water Project and the active faults with which it contend. Also shown are areas of potential land subsidence which required special treatment in constructing the aqueduct. The effect of future severe earthquakes will on these areas is not yet

At the early stages of project planning, the field of earthquake engineering was in its infancy. At that time, only six severe earthquakes had been recorded by long-motion seismographs; and, consequently, the nature of the ground motions occurring near the epicenter of an earthquake were poorly understood. Furthermore, the customary practice of basing the design of hydraulic structures on a pseudostatic seismic factor usually on the order of 0.05 to 0.1 was recognized as highly unrealistic and in some instances questionable. In view of these shortcomings, the California Department of Water Resources met with representatives of the California Earthquake Engineering Research Institute, a nonprofit organization dedicated to the improvement of earthquake design. On recommendation of that group, a 5-man advisory board for earthquake engineering was created, consisting of recognized authorities in the fields of geology, seismology, soil mechanics, foundation engineering, and structural engineering.

Professor Hugo Benioff, seismologist, served as the Board's chairman and upon his death Professor Clarence R. Allen, geologist, assumed this role. The Board recommended the establish-

ment of an Earthquake Engineering Section to implement needed earthquake-related research and studies. This office was created; and, at the height of project construction, it employed four engineering geologists, two seismologists, one civil engineer, and six electronic technicians. The efforts of this group were devoted largely to studying the habits of the San Andreas fault; developing design earthquakes for planning and design purposes; and the installation and operation of an alerting system to locate with seismographs the epicenters of earthquakes throughout the State, measure their magnitudes, and, in the case of severe earthquakes, assure rapid dispersal of repair crews. The alerting system covers the water project and also 1,100 dams which come under the State's jurisdiction for safety.

The historic earthquake on the San Andreas fault in 1857 is noteworthy because of its impact on planning the Project. This earthquake was centered in Southern California, and it occurred during the early settling of the State when most of the region was only sparsely inhabited. Nevertheless, the shock caused considerable disturbance and was felt throughout the Southwestern United States. Newspaper accounts reported landslides, uprooted trees, damage to the old Spanish missions, and reversal in the direction of stream flow in some areas. The ground surface along the trace of the fault may have ruptured over a length of 320 km. Inspections of offset stream channels indicate that the displacement was in a right lateral sense with a maximum on the order of 9 m. Although the seismograph had not yet been invented, it is generally believed that this shock exceeded 8.0 on the Richter magnitude scale. Some geologists contend

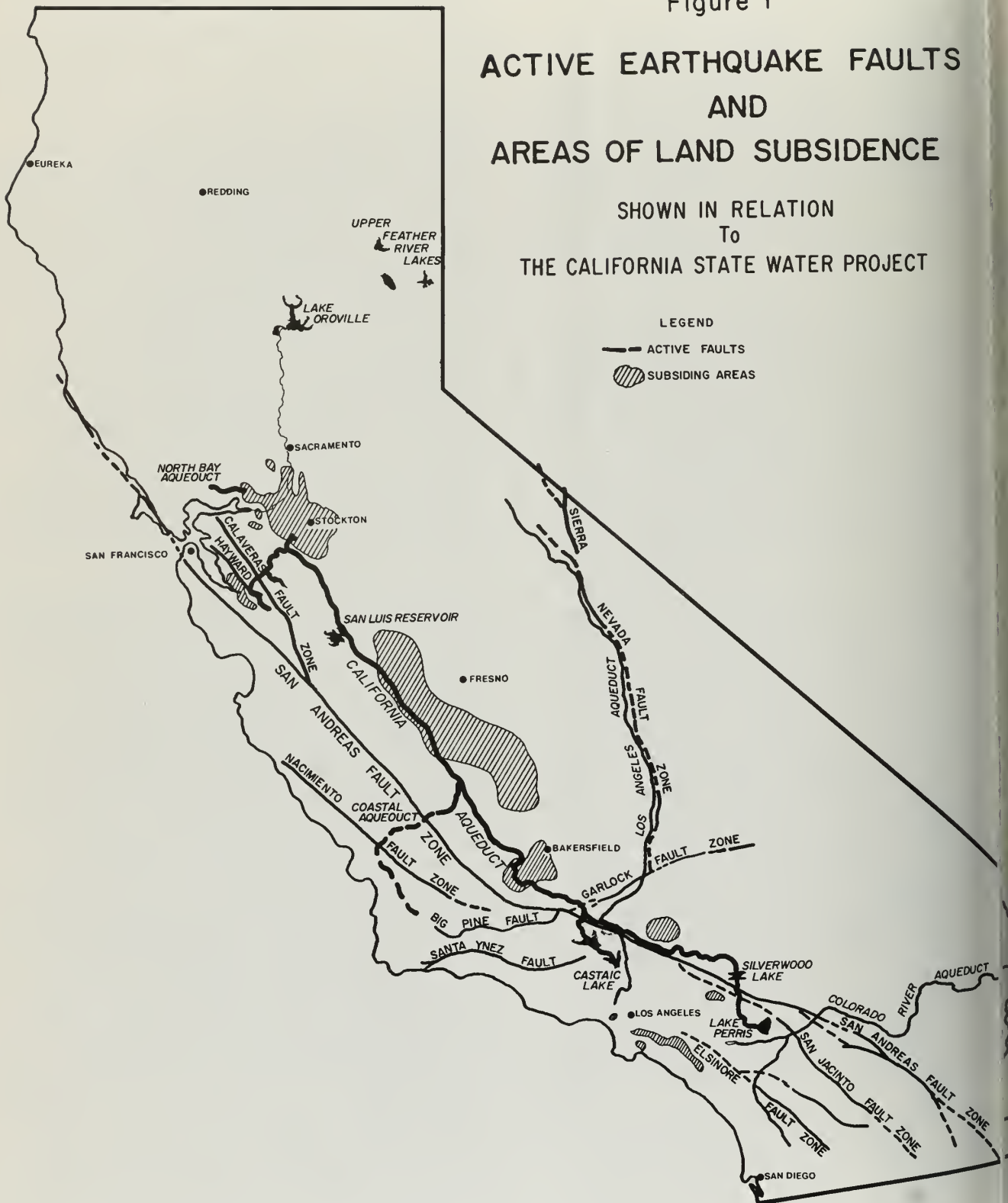
Figure 1

ACTIVE EARTHQUAKE FAULTS AND AREAS OF LAND SUBSIDENCE

SHOWN IN RELATION
To
THE CALIFORNIA STATE WATER PROJECT

LEGEND

- ACTIVE FAULTS
- ▨ SUBSIDING AREAS



it was the strongest experience in California since civilization of the State. The recurrence of a similar earthquake could disrupt all aqueducts carrying water to Los Angeles as they cross the San Andreas fault. These include the Los Angeles Department of Water Power Owens Valley aqueduct through the Sierra Nevada, in service since 1912, and the Colorado River aqueduct of the Metropolitan Water District of Southern California completed in 1934. The Owens Valley aqueduct crosses the San Andreas fault 183 m below ground surface in tunnel. The Colorado River aqueduct makes its crossing in a pipeline.

Ground water comprises approximately 40 percent of the total annual dependable water supply to Los Angeles. Experience has shown that this source may be disrupted during earthquakes by shearing and collapse of well casings, damage to deep-well turbine pumps and destruction of electrical facilities such as transmission lines, switchyard apparatus, and transformers. The possibility that all water supply systems for Los Angeles could be damaged by severe earthquake emphasized the importance of: (1) locating the aqueduct to permit ready access to damaged facilities, (2) incorporating surplus storage in terminal reservoirs for use while repairs can be made, and (3) constructing interconnections between major aqueduct systems to maximize backup capability.

SELECTION OF THE AQUEDUCT ROUTE

A particularly important step in the early planning was the selection of the route for the aqueduct through the Tehachapi Mountains. This range lies south

of the Great Valley of California and separates it from the Los Angeles Coastal Plain. Two basically different plans were proposed; both involved crossing the San Andreas fault, but each differed in the manner in which that crossing would be accomplished.

One of the alignments considered was known as the Long Tunnel Route or 1870 Tunnel, 1870 being the elevation of the crossing in feet above sea level. This route included a tunnel approximately 6 m in diameter and 43 km in length. It extended from the southernmost tip of the Great Valley to Castaic Reservoir, a terminal storage facility located north of Los Angeles. The long tunnel was aligned to pass beneath the Tehachapi Mountains with a maximum cover of 1,197 m. The San Andreas fault would be penetrated at a depth of 550 m. Four other major faults with questionable habits would also be intersected at depth.

The investigation of the long tunnel route was novel in that the entire study, including the selection of the alignment, construction scheduling, and preparation of the cost estimate for the tunnel and its three access shafts with hoists was undertaken exclusively by engineering geologists. It was estimated in 1954 that it would cost \$227,000,000 to build this tunnel.

The principal alternative to the long tunnel route was known as the High Line or 3,360 Route, the numbers again reflecting tunnel elevation in feet above sea level. This route included a pumping station of unprecedented size to lift a flow of 116 cubic meters per second a height of 590 m. The pumps would deliver

water to a series of four tunnels driven through the crest of the Tehachapi range, the longest of which would be 6.5 km. Selection of the alignment for these tunnels was based largely on geologic investigation. The route avoided crossing the San Andreas and other active faults at depth. Fault crossings were accomplished at ground surface where repairs to earthquake damage could be made rapidly. Beyond the ridge of the Tehachapi Mountains, the high line route bifurcated -- an east branch conveying water to the Mojave Desert, San Bernardino, and the eastern coastal plain and a west branch conveying water to Castaic Reservoir. Large amounts of electric power would be required for pumping, only a portion of which could be recovered at power plants located at the southern base of the range.

Early studies led to a decision favoring the high line route which has since been constructed and is now in operation. This decision was governed largely by geological factors, including earthquake hazards related to San Andreas fault and to the high cost of tunneling through fault zones at depth.

The California Aqueduct system, when completed in the 1980's, will cross the San Andreas or its tributary faults at nine points on the surface. In planning these crossings consideration has been given to minimizing down time during outages caused by earthquake. Two of these crossings are shown in Figures 2 and 3.

EARTHQUAKE ENGINEERING PROGRAM

The principal activity of the Department of Water Resources' Earthquake Engineering Section between 1959 and 1968 was its

Geodimeter Program--- a program to measure gradual fault movement that could disrupt the State Water Project. Fault or strain movement on the San Andreas and tributary faults was detected directly by measurement of change in the distance between permanent monuments located on either side of the fault. A Model 2A geodimeter was used for this purpose. More than 3,000 kilometers of lines were measured annually. Along the San Andreas the average annual right lateral movement was determined to be about four centimeters near Hollister diminishing to no measurable movement near Los Angeles.

In 1962 the Department's Consulting Board for Earthquake Analysis recommended seismic design criteria to meet expected ground shaking resulting from severe earthquakes. These criteria were based on a San Andreas fault design earthquake which considered the strong-motion record obtained from the 1940 earthquake near El Centro, California, adjusting the resultant velocity and acceleration spectra of that shock to a maximum of 0.5 g horizontally and 0.33 g vertically. Following the 1971 San Fernando earthquake the original criteria were updated taking into account hazard to human life, proximity to causative faults and frequency of occurrence of earthquakes.

In 1963-64 the State, in cooperation with the USC&GS, began establishing small (150-500 meter) highly precise triangulation figures in the vicinity of aqueduct facilities which cross known active faults. This type of triangulation figure has been referred to as a "Hollister type" or "fault movement quadrilateral". Both vertical and horizontal ground



Figure 2. In planning the California State Aqueduct, the State's practice was to cross active faults on or near ground surface to permit rapid repairs to facilities such as this siphon in the event of earthquake damage.

Gating at this siphon makes possible cut-off of the flow. A water level sensing element which responds to rapid changes in water surface elevation in the canal prism registers an alarm in an Area Control Center. The gate-closing mechanism can be remotely activated or operated locally.

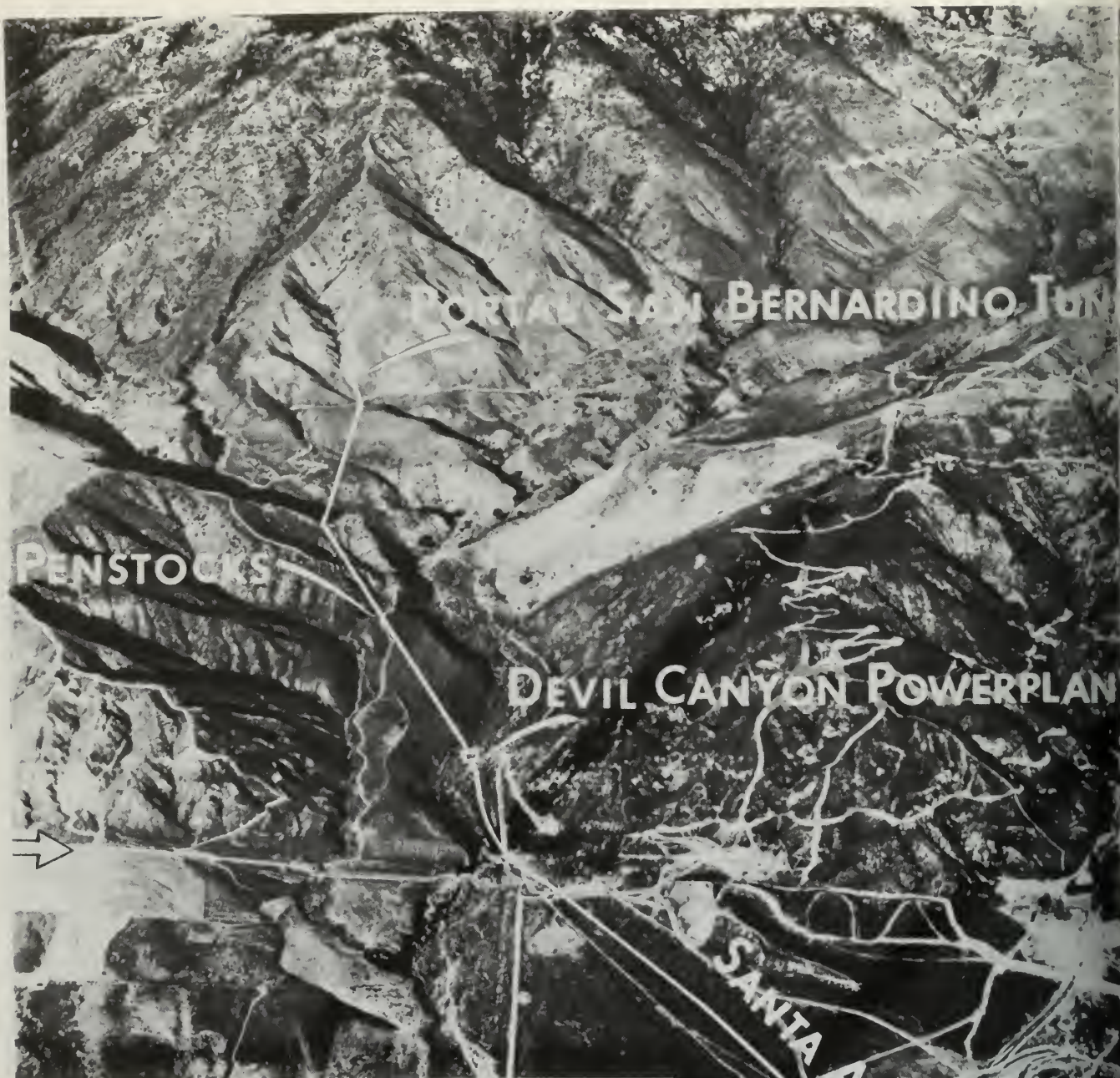


Figure 3. The San Andreas fault near Devil Canyon power plant. The physiographic manifestations of the fault are evident near the foot of San Bernardino Mountains where its trace (marked by arrows) crosses the photo from left to right. A lateral offset of several feet may have occurred on this segment of the fault in 1857. The power plant was located upstream of the fault, thus avoiding the risk of rupturing high-pressure penstock by displacement during a future earthquake.



ments (creep) are measured in the order of a few millimeters. Twenty-one such figures were published on the San Andreas or tributary faults from the Bay to San Bernardino.

Critical structures and facilities of the California State Water Project have been instrumented with strong-motion accelerographs to record strong ground shaking resulting from earthquakes. The emphasis is the acquisition of important structural response data for evaluating the design of existing structures and for design of new ones. Presently 65 strong-motion accelerographs are installed on dams, pumping and generating plants, and at free field sites. Arrays of accelerometers are placed perpendicular to the San Andreas fault to measure the variation of strong motion with distance from the fault. Additionally, force-balance accelerometers are embedded in several of the pumping plants and dams. Other seismic instrumentation in some of the dams includes stress and pressure cells.

The installation of tiltmeters at key facilities was recommended to detect possible adverse effects of tectonic deformation on the low level of the aqueduct and later because of concern over the possible effect on the bearing capacity of the Project's large pumps. Between 1964 and 1966, seven, two-component continuously recording tiltmeters were installed, primarily at pumping plants, and within a few miles of the San Andreas fault. No significant tilting was observed during three years of operation. All tiltmeters were dismantled in 1968. The effects of tilting on the structure was not as critical as first thought and the most significant vertical movement

affecting the aqueduct has been land subsidence which can be more effectively monitored by leveling surveys.

A statewide cooperative sensitive seismic network was established to monitor seismic activity (1) affecting facilities of the California State Water Project, particularly during filling of the reservoirs, and (2) to provide a round-the-clock notification for alerting maintenance personnel of earthquakes of magnitude 5 or greater occurring in vicinity of the facilities. Telemetry of these and other stations to Sacramento began in 1968. Through a cooperative telemetered exchange of seismic stations, establishment of a statewide network was completed in 1971. Presently 27 sensitive seismic stations including 10 operated by the State Department of Water Resources are telemetered to Sacramento and recorded. Cooperating agencies are the University of California at Berkeley, California Institute of Technology, the United States Geological Survey, and the University of Nevada.

The California Department of Water Resources has funded research at the University of California, Berkeley, Department of Civil Engineering, to improve seismic design criteria for dams and other structures. Studies have included dynamic analysis of earth dams, liquefaction of sands under cyclic loading conditions, lateral soil pressures on rigid structures, and cracking in earthfill dams as a consequence of shaking in various azimuths. Investigations presently underway will provide guidelines for analyzing dynamic behavior from real seismic data obtained at instrumented dams, towers and

pumping plants following future earthquakes.

After the San Fernando earthquake of 1971, the Department funded studies of "Measurements of Dynamic Characteristics of Electrical Equipment" through Stanford University, Department of Civil Engineering. These measurements were made at pumping and generating plants along the southern portion of the California Aqueduct and adjacent to the San Andreas fault zone. Dynamic characteristics of various electrical switchyard equipment and associated structures were measured. For comparison the characteristics were also determined analytically. These and further studies will provide improved seismic design criteria and requirements for new and existing mechanical and electrical equipment and civil features. Facilities will be modified to increase their seismic resistance as indicated by the studies.

CONCLUSION

Planning, design, construction, and operation of the California State Water Project were based on the assumption that a great earthquake will be experienced on San Andreas fault during the life of the facilities. Consequently, dams, power plants, pumping stations, and related switchyards were located away from the fault zone to avoid rupture by offsetting. The principal structural elements of the project were designed to withstand the ground motions expected during a magnitude 8 earthquake. Although 65 strong motion accelerographs were deployed during the planning stages, no great earthquakes were recorded during this interval. Design earthquakes were therefore based on data from other regions

with emphasis on ground motion recorded for the El Centro earthquake of 1940.

The aqueduct route, which unavoidably crosses the San Andreas was located to pass over this and other active faults at or near ground surface. This precaution is expected to expedite repairs of damage caused by faulting. As an added contingency, terminal reservoirs were enlarged to provide extra storage while repairs to damaged facilities can be made.

The objective of the earthquake engineering program has been to build the California State Water Project stressing public safety, system reliability, and economy of construction and to develop the state-of-the-art for future water systems.

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Reviewed by:

Mr. Robert B. Jansen, Deputy Director, State of California Department of Water Resources, Sacramento

Professor Clarence R. Allen, California Institute of Technology Pasadena, California.

CRUSTAL MOVEMENT INVESTIGATIONS ALONG THE SAN ANDREAS FAULT IN SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA

By John H. Bennett and Donald A. Rodgers
California Division of Mines and Geology

ACT

Geodetic investigations of crustal movement associated with the San Andreas fault between Cholame and the Imperial Valley in the past forty years have shown no evidence of fault slippage, and with the sole exception of the southern Imperial Valley, no clear indication of strain accumulation has been detected. This lack of observed movement suggests that the fault is locked to a considerable depth. This precludes surface observation of the strain field from movements occurring at depth. In spite of the absence of perceptible movement on the San Andreas fault, there are indications of relatively short-term deformational behavior and apparent crustal uplift in the Transverse Ranges. The past decade testifies to a dynamic environment.

INTRODUCTION

Geodetic surveys conducted subsequent to the 1906 San Francisco earthquake provided the first insight into the magnitude and general distribution of crustal movement associated with a major seismic event and provided the basis for Reid's classic elastic rebound theory of earthquake generation. Additional resurveys during the 1920's provided conclusive evidence of relatively large continuing displacement associated with the San Andreas fault system. These results led to initiation of a geodetic program specifically designed to assess long-term crustal deformation occurring on major faults in California.

During the early 1930's, several arc triangulation and traverse-leveling networks were established by the National Ocean Survey (then U.S. Coast and Geodetic Survey) along the San Andreas fault in

southern California. The resurveys of these networks -- conducted over a geologically brief 40-year period -- constitute the oldest source of geodetic data available for crustal movement studies in southern California other than portions of the national geodetic control network that have been fortuitously located in areas of interest. Observational errors inherent in this type of survey require an interval of 10 or more years between reobservations and necessitate the passage of 20-30 years before reliable conclusions regarding strain accumulation can be drawn.

The advent of electro-optical distance ranging instrumentation during the 1950's greatly enhanced the capability to determine geodetic distances. Accuracy was increased by an order of magnitude, and more frequent reobservations became practical. Concerned with the effects of fault movement on planned facilities of the State Water Project, the California Department of Water Resources (DWR) in 1959 initiated a measurement program utilizing this new instrumentation (Geodimeter). Periodic remeasurements were begun over a network of more than a hundred 15-30 km lines extending along the San Andreas and related faults from the San Francisco Bay region to Riverside County. This program has been continued by the California Division of Mines and Geology (CDMG) since 1968 and the United States Geological Survey (USGS) since 1971.

Through cost-sharing cooperative programs between DWR and the National Ocean Survey (NOS) during the period 1959-1968, reobservation and analysis of some of the older NOS networks were completed. Several new geodetic investigations were initiated in southern California including a large-scale regional triangulation network encompassing the major faults in the

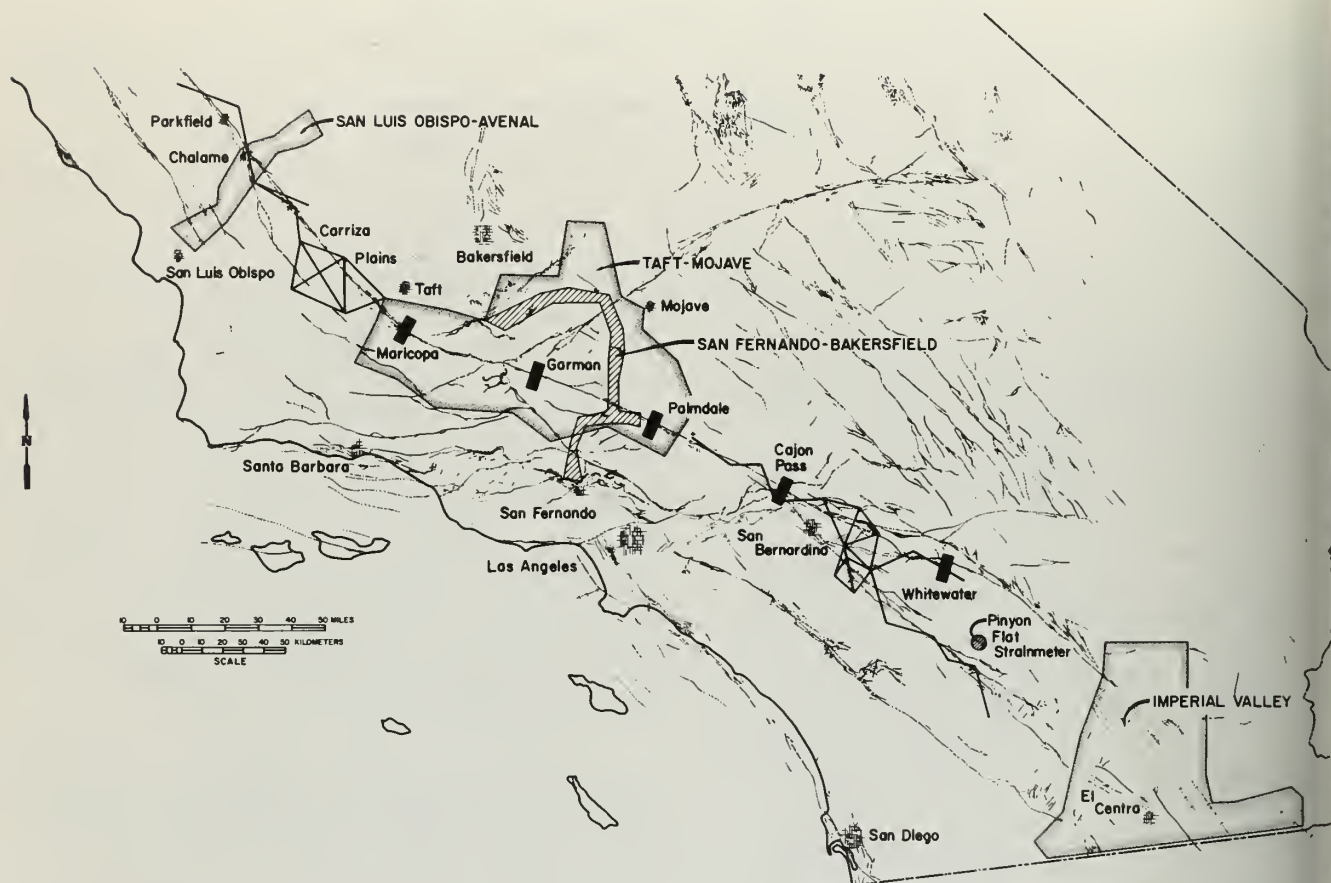


Figure 1. Locations of major geodetic crustal movement investigations along the San Andreas fault in southern California. Shaded areas indicate locations of triangulation networks and solid areas indicate locations of Traverse-leveling networks. Individual lines indicate selected portions of the Geodimeter network. Holocene and historically active faults taken from Jennings (1973).

Tehachapi Mountains region, four additional arcs of fault zone triangulation, and 16 small survey figures (fault movement quadrilaterals) for monitoring fault creep. An extensive program of geodetic leveling was also undertaken during this period.

More recently, the USGS and the universities have become increasingly involved with crustal movement investigations. The USGS, notably, has significantly extended the coverage of the original Geodimeter network.

Results of the major geodetic investigations along the San Andreas fault in southern California are briefly summarized herein. Individual projects are described

in geographical sequence along the fault beginning near Cholame in northern San Luis Obispo County and extending south to the Imperial Valley. Where a project is of a scope that it encompasses other major faults, discussion is generally limited to the results associated with the San Andreas fault. The Geodimeter networks are of a more regional nature and are discussed last. Each project summary is designated by the type of survey, the location-designation and the agency(s) responsible.

Two recent references are particularly noteworthy: (1) National Ocean Survey (1973) provides, in a single volume, 35 of the reports of crustal movement investigations prepared by NOS during the period

71; (2) Greensfelder (1972) reviews history of crustal movement investigations and lists locations, dates of installation, years and/or frequency of observations, responsible agencies, and instruments employed in the measurement of crustal deformation throughout California. As a particular reference is cited herein, reports of NOS investigations will be found in National Ocean Survey (1973).

RESULTS OF CRUSTAL MOVEMENT INVESTIGATIONS

A discussion of the results of crustal movement studies along the San Andreas fault in southern California would not be complete without noting the type of movement occurring along the San Andreas fault in the central Coast Ranges north of Cholame. Movement along this fault segment of the fault occurs as either slip or "creep". Actual displacement in most areas seems to occur along a fault less than 6 meters wide (Raleigh and Ford, 1969). Creep generally occurs continuously, reaching a maximum rate of approximately 3 cm per year throughout most of this fault segment. This rate is in reasonably good agreement with Geodimeter measurements and the average displacement rates derived from longer-baseline triangulation data (Savage and Ford, 1973), indicating that strain accumulation is nominal along this section of the San Andreas fault. The slip rate decreases to the level of seismic activity diminishes near the extremities of this section. The southern limit of seismic activity and measurable creep is near Cholame in northern San Luis Obispo County.

TRIANGULATION: SAN LUIS OBISPO TO MARICOPA (NOS)

This triangulation arc, extending approximately 120 km from the coast near San Luis Obispo northeast to the Kettleman City area, crosses the San Andreas fault near Cholame. The arc was established in 1932 and reobserved in 1951 and 1962. A partial resurvey of those stations near the San Andreas fault was completed shortly after the magnitude 5.5 Parkfield earthquake of June 1966. A comparison of geodetic positions derived from the 1932

and 1951 surveys indicated right-lateral movement of approximately 15 cm between stations straddling the fault. It is not clear whether this movement represents displacement near the end of the fault break of the 1934 Parkfield earthquakes or whether it represents creep at a rate of approximately 8 mm per year. Observed changes between the 1951 and 1962 surveys were not significant, suggesting that the differences noted during the previous period were a consequence of the 1934 earthquakes. The post-earthquake observations in 1966 disclosed right-lateral movement of approximately 15 cm since the 1962 survey; this offset agrees with both Geodimeter measurements and observed surface rupture resulting from the 1966 earthquakes.

Southwest along this arc, significant displacements normal to the structural trend are indicated which suggest thrusting or compressional strain associated with subparallel northwest-trending faults. To further investigate the possibility of fault activity in this region, in 1974 CDMG initiated a program of annual Geodimeter measurements west of the San Andreas fault.

FAULT MOVEMENT QUADRILATERAL: "TEM" SITE (NOS/DWR)

This small survey figure, with dimensions on the order of 300 m was established in 1964 and reobserved in 1965; it straddles the San Andreas fault approximately 7 km southeast of Cholame. Reobservations following the 1966 earthquakes revealed right-lateral displacement of 2.5 cm, evidently a result of the earthquake. The 1971 resurvey indicated continued right-lateral displacement at an average rate of approximately 7-8 mm per year, which represents the effects of fault creep at or very near the surface. There is no evidence of fault creep south of this location.

TRAVERSE-LEVELING: VICINITY OF MARICOPA (NOS)

One of the survey programs initiated by NOS during the 1930's was the establishment

of several traverse-leveling networks crossing major faults in southern California. These networks consist of a series of closely-spaced monuments (100'-500' spacing) crossing the fault near right angles and extending approximately 7-8 km on each side. Both horizontal positions and elevations are determined.

The network near Maricopa was established in 1938 and is located along State Highway 166, crossing the San Andreas fault at Camp Dix. Resurveys for horizontal movement in 1948 and 1959 and numerous relevelings have revealed no evidence of movement.

TRIANGULATION - "TAFT-MOJAVE" (NOS/DWR)

During 1959-60, a regional triangulation network was established in the Tehachapi Mountains by the U.S. Coast and Geodetic Survey and the California Department of Water Resources. As an integral part of this survey, many of the network lines were measured with the Geodimeter. During 1967-68, the entire net was re-observed. The following results are from the project report (Miller and others, 1969):

"The resultant position vectors and their corresponding 95% confidence error ellipses show that the changes in position are within the limits of observation. However, significant patterns exist. Strain is more evident than fault slippage. There is an area of expansion east of the Garlock fault and north of the San Gabriel fault. The remainder of the net generally contracts or compresses. Along the White Wolf fault, the Geodimeter results show there is left-lateral movement of about 9 cm. for the interval 1959-60 to 1967. On the San Andreas fault, west of the junction with the Garlock and San Gabriel faults, the Geodimeter results indicate right-lateral movement of about 9 cm. for the 7-year period. Along the Garlock fault and the San Andreas fault east of the junction, the results indicate strain rather than slippage."

The establishment of this network represented a major step toward the study of crustal deformation in this complex region. However, several comments about the results quoted are in order. First, the overall accuracy of the survey was about 4 parts per million. Thus the results obtained are well within survey error although the internal consistency of the results does give them greater credit. Second, and perhaps more important, the hypothesis of a time-variable strain advanced by Greensfelder and Bennett (1973) is valid, it may be difficult to separate the effects of time-varying strains and tectonic strains. Additional resurveys will be necessary before more substantive conclusions are warranted.

TRAVERSE-LEVELING: VICINITY OF GORMAN (NOS)

This network crosses the San Andreas fault near Quail Lake approximately 10 km southeast of Gorman. Surveys for horizontal movement were completed in 1932, 1949, and 1966; releveling has been accomplished on several occasions since 1950. Results of all surveys indicate no movement on the fault.

TRIANGULATION: SAN FERNANDO TO BAKEWELL (NOS)

This narrow arc of triangulation crossing the San Andreas fault between Lake Hughes and Palmdale, lies almost totally within the Taft-Mojave regional network. Established in 1932, the arc was resurveyed in 1952-53 following the Arvin-Tehachapi earthquake and again in 1963. Results of the three surveys of the portion of the arc near the San Andreas fault show no evidence of fault movement.

PRECISE LEVELING: CENTRAL TRANSVERSE RANGES (NOS)

Since 1960 the NOS, with considerable support from DWR, has accomplished precise leveling along various routes in the Transverse Ranges. As a result of these surveys, Meade and Small (1966) reported apparent recent uplift of several tet-

foot, along the main north-south level between Los Angeles and Gorman. More recently, Castle and others (1974) have analyzed these and other data, concluding a general uplift did occur over this region during the previous decade. In addition, localized uplift of an apparent episodic nature is indicated south of Palmdale and over the upper plate of the San Fernando fault prior to the 1971 earthquake. Near Palmdale, a maximum uplift of 20 cm occurred during the period 1964.

Castle and others (1974) state "In view of the limitations inherent in the data presented here, these results indicate clearly and unequivocally that the Central Transverse Ranges have undergone extensive tectonic uplift during the previous decade. The uplift, however, has proceeded irregularly in both space and time; whether these irregularities are manifestations chiefly of the chaotic nature of crustal movements in the area (see Jennings and others, 1969), or are somehow related to variations in primary tectonic drive rates, remains nearly an open question."

TRaverse-LEVELING: VICINITY OF PALMDALE (NOS)

Initial observations of this network were completed in 1938 and repeated in 1958. These data and the results of several relevelings have produced no evidence of fault movement.

FAULT MOVEMENT QUADRILATERALS: TEJON PASS AND CAJON PASS (NOS-DWR)

Several fault movement quadrilaterals were established along this section of the San Andreas fault in 1964. No evidence of horizontal or vertical displacements indicative of fault movement has been detected at any of these sites.

TRaverse-LEVELING: VICINITY OF CAJON PASS (NOS)

This traverse-leveling network extends approximately 10 km. through Cajon Canyon and crosses the San Andreas fault at Lone Pine Canyon. Observations for horizontal

displacements in 1949 and 1963 and several relevelings since 1935 have revealed no evidence of fault movement.

FAULT MOVEMENT QUADRILATERAL: "DEVIL" SITE (NOS/DWR)

This small survey figure, located astride the San Andreas fault at Devil Canyon northwest of San Bernardino, was established in 1964. Annual reobservations prior to 1971 produced no evidence of lateral movement. The 1971 survey, however, indicated right-lateral displacement of approximately 1.5 cm between the 1970-71 surveys (Miller, 1972). This apparent change in movement behavior may be related to similar changes in trend noted on two nearby quadrilaterals located on the San Jacinto fault at Rialto and Colton. Both right-lateral movement of a few millimeters per year and differential subsidence across the fault had been recorded at both of these sites since 1964. Resurveys of these two sites, completed at the same time as the 1971 resurvey at the Devil site, indicated a reversal of the previously observed movements.

TRaverse-LEVELING: VICINITY OF WHITEWATER (NOS)

Repeat leveling at this site since 1935 has not revealed any vertical changes of significance. The original measurements for horizontal displacement were accomplished in 1950 and have not been repeated.

LASER STRAIN-METERS: PINYON FLAT (UCSD)

The University of California, San Diego, is operating three long-base (800 meter) laser strainmeters at Pinyon Flat between the San Andreas and San Jacinto faults (Berger and Wyatt, 1973). Observations were begun in 1971 on a north-south oriented instrument; an east-west arm was added in 1972, and the final northwest-southeast component was added in 1973. The dominant signal is an apparent annual strain cycle with an amplitude of approximately 1×10^{-6} . Several years of continued operation will be required to assess the secular strain rate.

TRIANGULATION: IMPERIAL VALLEY (NOS)

During the mid-1930's, NOS established a network of triangulation throughout the Imperial Valley as a part of the national geodetic control network (Miller and others, 1970). On May 19, 1940, the magnitude 6.7 El Centro earthquake produced right-lateral strike-slip displacement along the Imperial fault near the international boundary. As a consequence, the geodetic network was reobserved during 1941. Relative displacements across the Imperial fault reached a maximum of over 9 feet with the magnitude of displacement diminishing rapidly with distance from the fault. Right-lateral displacement of approximately 2.5 feet was indicated between stations on opposite sides of the Valley near the border, but there was no evidence of deformation in the net north of the Imperial fault. Reobservations in 1954, however, indicated right-lateral deformation primarily in the region north of the Imperial fault, suggesting northwestward strain migration after the 1940 earthquake. Reobservations in 1967 indicated little change from those of 1954, supporting the supposition that the displacements of the previous 13-year period (1941-54) were associated with the 1940 earthquake.

Considering the entire period covered by these surveys, 1934-67, there is (a) no clear indication of right-lateral strain accumulation in the northern part of the network, including that portion which crosses the San Andreas fault east of the Salton Sea, and (b) in the southern part of the network, the apparent lateral displacement across the 100-km wide valley is about 5 feet, or an average rate of about 4.5 cm/yr over the 33-year period. However, since a significant portion of this total displacement is probably attributable to the 1940 earthquake, a long-term rate of strain accumulation is not known.

GEODIMETER MEASUREMENTS (CDMG/USGS)

Parkfield-Maricopa

Several long (20-25 km) Geodimeter lines have been periodically remeasured

between Parkfield and Maricopa since Greensfelder and Bennett (1973) and S and others (1973) have summarized the Geodimeter observations in this region. Since initial measurements in 1959, 1 in the Parkfield-Cholame region indicate length changes of approximately 25-30 (1.0+ft.) consistent with right-lateral movement. These line length changes reflect a combination of right-lateral creep, the offset accompanying the 19 earthquakes and, presumably, a component of strain. However, the net change in length of lines further south through Carrizo Plains is much smaller than to the north, and the changes on many of the lines in this region indicate significant east-west extension during the period 1969-71. This is also true of lines throughout the remainder of the locked segment of the San Andreas fault southeast to San Bernardino. This time period coincides with a change in measurement systems, however, and the apparent displacements may be the result of a bias between the two systems. However, numerous measurements elsewhere in the network do not indicate a consistent bias nor is there a completely satisfactory explanation to account for one.

CDMG scheduled more frequent remeasurements of selected lines across the Carrizo Plain during 1972-73. Length changes of several centimeters were observed over a period of months on some but not all lines. The apparent amplitude of these short period changes diminished to an insignificant level during 1974.

Maricopa-Cajon Pass

The most significant aspect of the Geodimeter data in this region is the suggestion of a non-linear trend in many of the line length changes. Greensfelder and Bennett (1973) have noted that many lines indicate shortening during the period 1965-68 followed by an apparent lengthening during 1969-71. Again, this later period coincides with a change in measurement systems, so these length changes may not be of tectonic origin. Nevertheless, it is concluded that during the fifteen-year period of measurement, 1959-74, the net length change on lines associated with

San Andreas fault in this region does not indicate fault movement.

of Cajon Pass

Only a few Geodimeter lines were originally established in the greater San Bernardino-Redlands region when this program was initiated in 1959. Several lines were added along the San Jacinto near Perris Reservoir in 1966 and further south to Borrego Valley in 1970. During 1973-74 the USGS incorporated many of these lines into an expanded network joining the San Andreas-San Jacinto-Cajon Pass fault systems.

Geodimeter measurements in this region have always been difficult because of atmospheric conditions and the large elevation differences encountered on many lines. Consequently, the pre-1969 measurements, in particular, are not considered as reliable as measurements elsewhere in the region. From the limited data available, it can be concluded that the line lengths in this region have been nominal, and there are no changes clearly indicative of either fault movement or strain accumulation.

RY

From various geodetic investigations conducted along the San Andreas fault in Southern California during the past 40 years, there is no evidence of horizontal slippage. More significantly, there is little evidence from these surveys to suggest any appreciable lateral strain accumulation. The only evidence of strain accumulation occurs in the southern end of Imperial Valley with deformation distributed across the entire 100 km width of the Valley.

There is a corresponding absence of differential vertical movement across the San Andreas fault during the past four decades. On a larger scale, however, the results of extensive repeat leveling during the past decade indicate significant uplift throughout the Transverse Ranges.

Collectively, these data suggest that there is very little observable strain

accumulation taking place along the San Andreas fault. If the fault is locked to some considerable depth, strain accumulation at the surface would be so small that the available geodetic techniques are not able to resolve it. A dislocation model of the San Andreas fault with a locked zone at least 30 km deep predicts the geology and seismicity of the Transverse Ranges more accurately than a corresponding model assuming a shallower locked zone. The strain field calculated at the surface from the model has a maximum rate of change of less than 0.3 micro-strain per year. Thus, in order to observe strain accumulation, geodetic techniques with a precision of at least 1×10^{-6} may be necessary with repeat observations spanning a period of 10 years or more. Since this precision has only recently been achieved, several years of continuing observations may be necessary before strain accumulation can be observed. In order to map the strain field and estimate the depth of the locked zone, geodimeter measurements should be extended 100 km on either side of the fault.

The uplift detected in the Transverse Ranges during the past decade suggests that leveling surveys and/or tiltmeter arrays may produce more immediately useful data than horizontal surveys. In 1968 several southern California counties, the City of Los Angeles, and the NOS established a cooperative leveling program, parts of which extend into the Transverse Ranges. Periodic releveing of this network with some extensions to improve coverage in the Transverse Ranges would provide an effective measure of long-term regional deformation, relative displacements at fault crossings, and a base for detection and surveillance of anomalous changes.

Finally, Geodimeter measurements, fault-movement quadrilateral reobservations, and leveling in the central Transverse Ranges suggest the existence of both horizontal and vertical deformation of a relatively localized and episodic nature. Whether these apparent anomalies are an expression of near surface stress changes or are due to some variation in basic tectonic forces is unknown.

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STRONG MOTION AND MICROACOUSTIC INSTRUMENTATION ALONG THE SAN ANDREAS FAULT

By William W. Wells and C. Forrest Bacon
California Division of Mines and Geology

In 1971, California Legislature enacted the Governor signed into law, Chapter Division 2 of the Public Resources (SB 1374), to establish and monitor statewide Strong-Motion Instrumentation Program for recording earthquake motion in representative geological environments and representative structures throughout the

The California Division of Mines and Geology was directed to organize and carry out this program with the advice of an Advisory Board appointed by the State Geologist. The present Board of members consists of engineers, scientists with technical competence in engineering seismology, as well as representatives of local government, state and federal agencies, and private organizations.

A strong-motion seismograph (also called an accelerograph) is an instrument designed to record the stronger vibrations caused by earthquakes. It does not record low amplitude vibrations, but produces records when an earthquake producing an acceleration greater than 0.1g takes place and triggers the instrument. The standard seismograph used for recording earthquakes is too sensitive for this and is usually driven "off-scale" before the strong-motion instrument records.

It is vitally important that strong-motion instruments be located on soil and rock formations and along faults wherever construction is planned so that the ground motion recorded may be studied and considered in construction design. It is also necessary to have strong-motion instruments at various types of structures to evaluate the behavior of different structure designs during an earthquake.

Because soil and rock types vary greatly across the state, sites are chosen that reflect the variety of California's geology. It is necessary that there be a statewide program to assure that there will be a coordination of effort and a scientifically sound distribution of instruments.

At this time, the Division of Mines and Geology is installing strong-motion instruments as follows:

1. In geographic areas not yet covered by instrument installation by other organizations,
2. On representative soil, rock and fault sites throughout the state, and
3. In a broad group of representative buildings and structures.

The State Strong-Motion Instrumentation Program is carried out in cooperation with other agencies; mainly with the Seismic Engineering Branch of the U.S. Geological Survey, California Institute of Technology, Department of Water Resources Dam Safety Division, and the Structural Engineers Association of California.

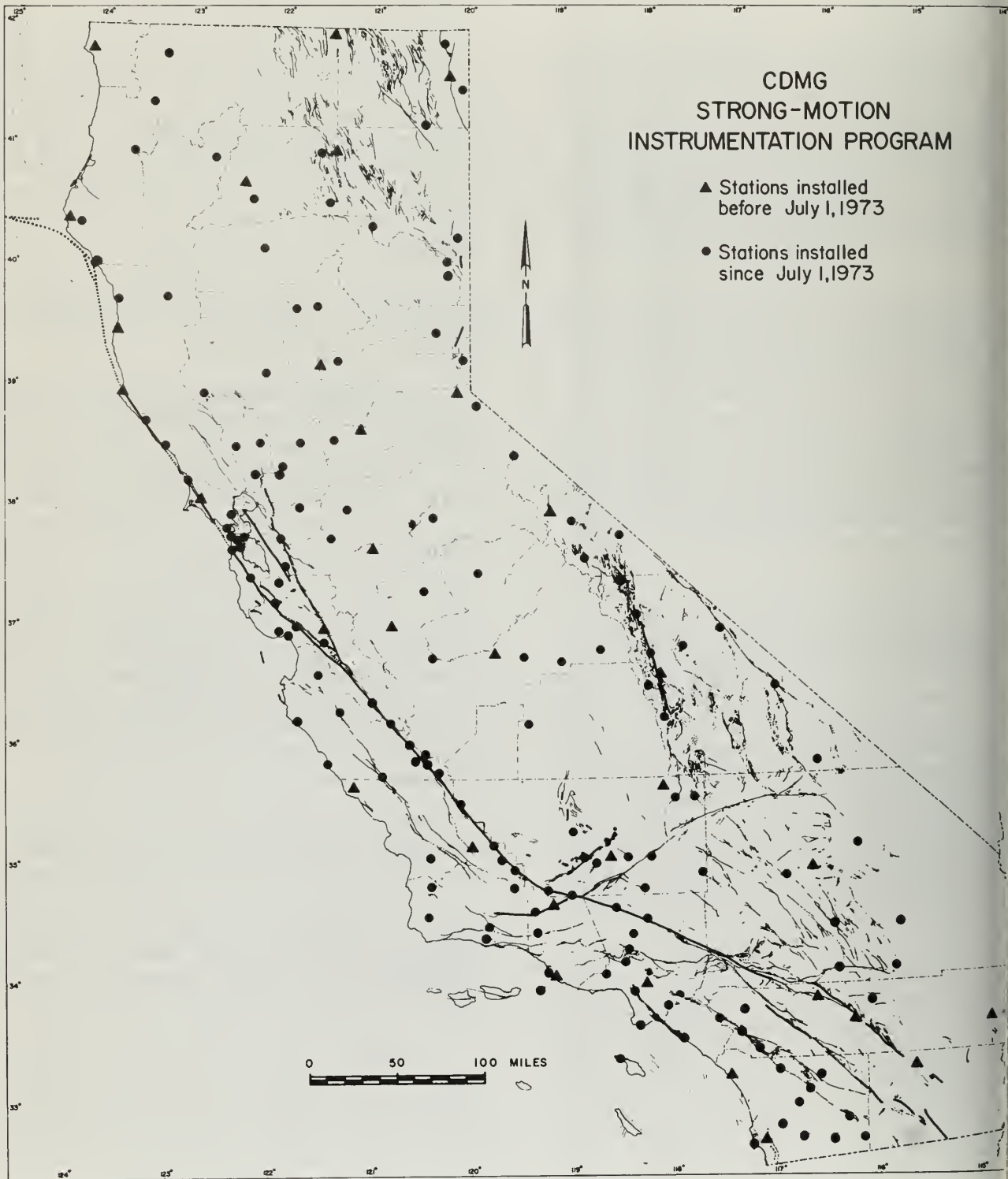
All state instruments are integrated into the strong-motion network of the U.S. Geological Survey. The U.S. Geological Survey collects and processes strong motion instrument records from any earthquake in California and makes the data available upon request to scientific and engineering organizations.

From the Salton Sea to north of Parkfield, the Division of Mines and Geology has installed 19 instruments along the San Andreas fault. California Institute of Technology has 22 proposed instrument sites along the San Andreas fault covering

the same area. Most of these instruments have been installed or will be installed in the near future. (See map.)

14 instruments either on or close to San Andreas fault.

In addition to the above, the U.S. Geological Survey and the Department of Water Resources has approximately 12 to



ACUSTIC EMISSION ALONG THE SAN ANDREAS FAULT

As part of an experimental instrumentation program, the California Division of Mines and Geology has completed the first phase of a pilot study to monitor audio frequency microseismic activity along a major fault zone. Preliminary results indicate that this method may prove to be a useful tool for predicting earthquake activity. The idea that audible noise or subaudible "sounds" may precede major earthquakes is not new. The literature describes numerous instances of the excitation of animals over periods of hours before actual major earthquakes. To test the credibility of these theories, and others involving premonitory experiences of humans, Armstrong (1969) compared the auditory response of man and animals, and discussed, in mathematical terms, their possible capabilities to detect acoustic emission of the level that occurs prior to rockbursts and perhaps before earthquakes. He concluded that stress buildup may improve the acoustic emission characteristics of the rock and even form "sound channels" so that low frequency precursors may be heard or detected at the surface. He suggested that sound with frequencies up to a few hertz may travel far enough to be detected and to give useful warnings of low focus earthquakes for highly populated areas.

Microseismic-acoustic methods have been used in mining and slope failure studies and the development in 1939, of equipment for the detection of popping and cracking of rock which occurs just prior to tunnel wall failure or rockburst.

Although some recent workers have listened along faults for possible changes in level of acoustic emission as indicators of impending fault movement, results were disappointing. Possible reasons for the inconclusive results obtained in these experiments include poor acoustic transmission characteristics of the rock or materials beneath the site chosen for the experiment; lack of acoustic emission due to insufficient stress buildup

at the time of testing; or presence of creep zones which relieve stress continuously and prevent its building up to levels associated with acoustic emission. Extraneous noise such as that caused by car doors, aircraft, wind, blasting, internal combustion engines, construction activity, thermal expansion and contraction of rock, and insects and animals can also mask acoustic frequency microseismic activity. Probably the greatest single reason for inconclusive results has been that insufficient time and effort were spent in monitoring in the right location.

The present pilot study was designed not with the idea of spending long periods monitoring particular stations, but to determine the factors that constitute a good acoustic listening station. Where should the station be located? What should be its physical relationships to the fault being monitored? What kind of geologic materials should be present at and near the site? What kinds of fault activity are most likely to create detectable acoustic emission? What kinds of equipment should be used and in what configuration? What operational problems can be expected and how can they be minimized? The discussion which follows will attempt to bring out the answers obtained so far and to indicate which questions need further consideration.

SELECTION OF STATIONS

Brune and Allen (1967) observed that micro-earthquake activity is least along the southern central section of the San Andreas fault, between Cholame and Valyermo, but increases notably along the fault trace both to the south and to the north of this section. The level of micro-earthquake activity ranges from virtually nil in the segment between Cholame and Valyermo to more than 75 shocks daily in the Imperial Valley section.

It should be emphasized that Brune and Allen were dealing with true micro-earthquakes at frequencies of 20 hertz and

below. On the other hand, the present study emphasizes those frequencies well up in the audible spectrum in the range of 150 hertz to several thousand hertz, and is concerned with the detection of micro or small scale fracturing sound, which according to Scholz (1968a), begins at about half the fracture stress, in rock, and accelerates to a final burst of activity just before failure.

The segment of the San Andreas fault between Parkfield and the Carrizo Plains was selected for part of this study for two reasons: first, the work could be coordinated with other projects of the Division of Mines and Geology in that area and second, by selecting an array of stations that extends in both directions from the northern boundary of the "locked" or quiet segment of the fault, we sought to test whether stress is indeed building up around this critical zone. For these reasons, six stations were established along a 160-mile stretch of the fault (Figure 1): 1. at Gold Hill, just south of Parkfield, in an area of increased earthquake activity; 2. at the southern end of Cholame Valley very close to the northern end of the "locked" zone; 3. at the northwesterly bend in the fault near Mt. Abel; and 4, 5, and 6 located to test for stress buildup within the southeastern part of the "locked" zone between Frazier Park and Palmdale.

We tried to locate the stations immediately adjacent to the fault on large bodies of hard rock with above average acoustic transmission characteristics. This was considered necessary because as Armstrong (1969) has pointed out, transmission ranges for high frequency sound, in rocks under normal pressure, are very short, and this indicates that there would be only a marginal possibility of detecting usable acoustic emission sounds--and then only under very favorable circumstances.

Armstrong (1969) also points out that rock Q (specific attenuation factor) values are known to increase with pressure, thus improving acoustic transmission characteristics, and this may substantially

increase the ranges of local transmission in regions of high stress. This effect could significantly improve the observability of preliminary acoustic emission, particularly for shallow-focus earthquakes with strain fields that extend to the surface. Armstrong estimates, that for rocks with normal Q values of about 10, the maximum range of transmission for sounds of 1000 hertz frequency would be 3000 to 4000 meters. If the rock becomes stressed, which might raise the Q value to 1000, the maximum sound transmission may be increased to as much as 30,000 to 40,000 meters.

For regions under normal stress conditions, it can be seen from the foregoing that if the origin point for acoustic emission lies as far below the surface as say, 1500 meters, the transducer must be located as near the fault as possible and in rock with the best possible acoustic transmission characteristics. Such rock is difficult to find adjacent to the San Andreas fault in the area of this study. Hard rock, where it is present commonly is much fractured or is deeply altered or both. As can be seen from the foundation materials list in Table 1, a compromise in rock hardness was sometimes necessary in order to site a station at a critical location.

EQUIPMENT

The equipment used in the pilot study includes units on hand and units which could be borrowed. The microseismic acoustic detection devices consist of Seismitron units, manufactured for use in mines and tunnels. The Seismitron amplifies sound up to 2.5 million times and can detect movement that is smaller than the diameter of a hydrogen atom - (4.16×10^{-8} cm). In use, the instrument probe is placed in the end of a six-foot drill hole and the mouth of the hole is filled with packing to minimize extraneous sounds (Figure 2). The operator listens to the amplified sounds using earphones and may, at the same time, record the signals on magnetic tape, an oscilloscope or a chart recorder.

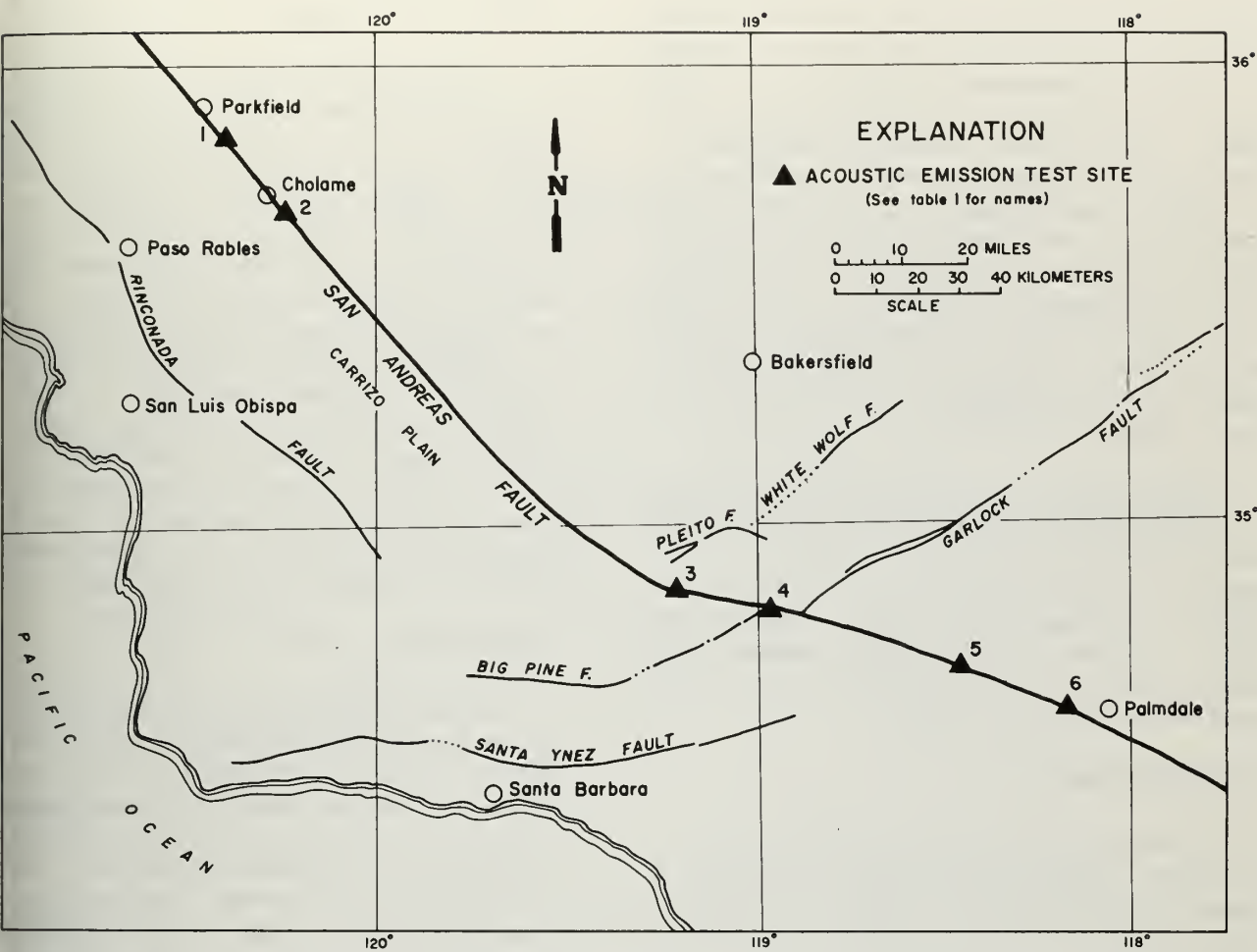


Figure 1. Index map showing the locations of the microacoustic test stations.

Station	Foundation Material	Highest Count Per 15 Min.	Lowest Count Per Hour	Average Count Per Hour
Gold Hill	Limestone & Gabbro	7	0	2
Cholame	Greenstone Wedge & Shale	1	0	3
Caballo	Cemented Breccia	11	1	12.2
Frazier	Quartz Monzonite	3	0	3.2
Leona	Sandstone	1	0	0.6
Delona	Schist	4	0	2.6

TABLE 1
Acoustic Emission Event Count Analysis

The operator must eliminate unwanted or extraneous sounds which may very closely resemble true acoustic emission. Sources of such extraneous sounds are, for example, the crushing of a sand grain as the probe settles, heat related expansion or contraction, or movement of sand grains or pebbles down slope. To overcome this problem, two instruments are used simultaneously in holes located 25 feet apart. The instruments are connected and balanced to provide binaural or "stereo" recording and listening. Any signal which does not occur on both channels is discarded as local, unwanted noise.

Signals are recorded on magnetic tape at a speed of 1-7/8 inches per second for later playback and analysis in the laboratory. Detailed, time-regulated notes are taken during each recording and these, together with digital counter information, can be used to identify any signal received on either channel.

LABORATORY ANALYSIS

Equipment used in the laboratory analysis of the taped records includes a frequency-calibrated triggered oscilloscope, high and low cut filters, a 4-speed tape recorder, a chart recorder, and appropriate bridge rectifiers, matching networks, and filters. The chart recorder is used to make a permanent record for comparison of amplitudes and overall activity in any given time period. Tapes are played back with audible sound and with a portion of the signal fed to the frequency-calibrated oscilloscope. Each acoustic emission event waveform is photographed and analyzed for overall frequency content, arrival times, and particular frequency bands using high and low cut filters. Analysis of signals for frequency content is a time-consuming but worthwhile part of this program, and will continue for a period before all the results are complete. Armstrong (1969) has discussed in some detail the problems involved with the use of various frequencies. In addition, a small computer program is being developed which will consider amplitude spectra, cross correlation between channels, anisotropy and P-wave

travel time and also provide a crude location technique.

At the beginning of this project, it was assumed that the minimum time period needed to obtain representative observations at each station should be similar to those used for underground work, or about 15 minutes. However, wide variations in average count per unit time were found in tests made over periods of one to two hours and even wider variations were noted in short period tests made on different days. It became apparent that the minimum recording period should be at least one hour and that periods of two or more hours would prove useful, particularly when the tests are separated by a period of a week or longer. Table 1 lists some average and specific counts for the various stations.

FUTURE WORK

Probably the greatest single problem experienced in the tests is the identification and elimination of extraneous noise. Wind can be particularly troublesome because it sometimes blows hard enough continuously enough to mask all but the strongest acoustic emission events. However, the noise that is most difficult to distinguish from true microseismic emission is that produced by expansion and contraction of rocks due to heat changes. Since the use of dual probes and other preliminary measures, a sizeable percentage of the events recorded during this study are probably from this source. It is possible that, because of rock type and exposure, this phenomenon may account for a major part of the anomalously large number of events recorded at Caballo station. The best and most obvious method of improving the signal-to-noise ratio is to place the transducers in deep drill holes. In addition to deep drill holes, more than 100 probes will be used in the next series of tests, to provide an accurate means of locating emission points in three dimensions in the earth. Also, for the next series of tests, each site will have an equipment vault so that time-switched signal-triggered time-delayed recording can be made from a continuous loop recording while equipment is left unattended.

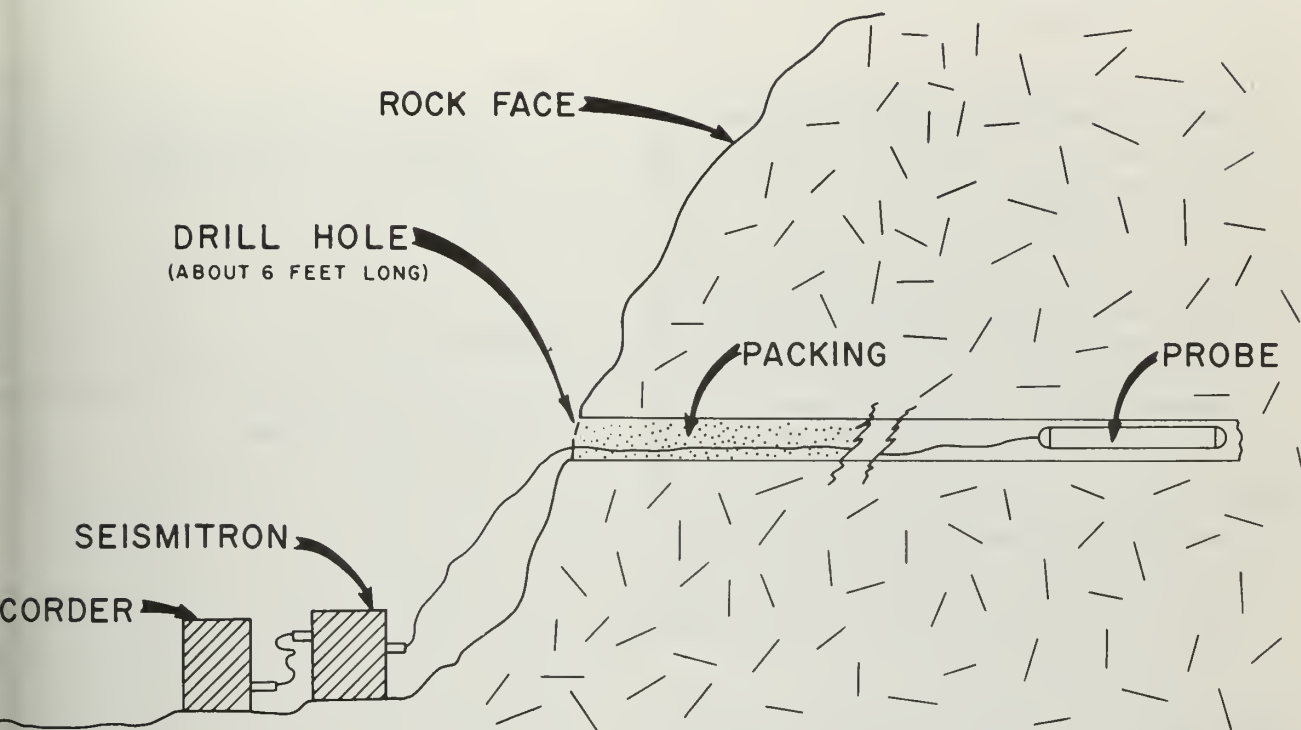


Figure 2. Typical installation of microacoustic detection equipment used for this pilot study.

periods of several hours or several

CONCLUSIONS

This pilot study determined the feasibility of monitoring acoustic phenomena and possible applications in the prediction of earthquakes along the San Andreas Fault. Field measurements to date were intended to monitor earthquake precursors, such as microseismic activity. The project successfully determined: 1) that audio frequency microseismic activity can be detected; 2) what areas would make the best sites for further study; and 3) what types of instrumentation and techniques would be successful for this purpose.

Laboratory analysis of the pilot project is still continuing, but results to date indicate that the method may hold

promise in the field of earthquake prediction. Acoustic emissions were definitely detected in small but varying amounts at several of the stations, although the type and level of that activity can vary widely from one measurement interval to the next.

The greatest problem encountered, the identification and elimination of similar sounding noise from thermal expansion and contraction of rock will be minimized in the next phase of operation through use of deeper drill holes and multiple instrumentation.

The critical question, whether detectable variation in the level and type of acoustic microseismic emissions actually occur just prior to earthquake-causing movements along a given fault, remains to be answered. The technique, instruments and theory are available, but their success

in predicting damaging earthquakes can be proven only by experience with real earthquake events.

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EARLY AND MIDDLE EOCENE SHORELINE OFFSET BY THE SAN ANDREAS FAULT, SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA

David G. Howell
U.S. Geological Survey
Palo Park, California 94025

ABSTRACT

Paleogene strata crop out extensively in the Transverse Ranges. The lithofacies and faunal assemblages of lower Paleogene strata indicate widespread open-ocean conditions with a shoaling towards the south and northeast. The shoreline for these deposits is inferred to have been offset by the San Andreas fault zone in the present Mojave Desert region.

At early Eocene time a Borderland physiography had developed west of the San Andreas fault and was well developed in the middle Eocene. The marine environment extended northwestward against the then present San Rafael High that was bounded to the east by a northwest oriented marine embayment. The east margin of this embayment shoaled against granitic terrane in the Pine Mountain-Piru Creek area. The extension of this shoreline is now truncated nearly east-west and trends toward the San Gabriel fault zone.

The only Paleogene strata known to crop out east of the San Andreas fault zone are the sediments of the Maniobra Valley, east of the north end of the Salton River. These rocks unconformably abut the granitic terrane by depositional

It is inferred that Eocene strata of the Pine Mountain-Piru Creek area and the Maniobra Valley have been separated 220 to 260 km (260 km is best fit) by right-slip

INTRODUCTION

Paleocene sedimentary rocks of the Transverse Range suggest that open-ocean conditions existed east of the present location of the San Andreas fault (Reed and Oster, 1936; Sage, 1973). Physiographic development of a borderland by early Eocene

time created more restricted seas that shoaled principally west of the San Andreas fault zone.

Assuming no late Tertiary crustal rotation, it appears that by the middle Eocene an east-west oriented marine basin had developed in the Transverse Range area. The northeastern shoreline of this basin was located along the southwestern limit of the Pine Mountain-Piru Creek area (Fig. 1). This shoreline trends towards the San Gabriel fault, but the only Eocene rocks to the east of this fault are now located in the Maniobra Valley east of the San Andreas fault zone (Fig. 1). This report briefly describes the middle Eocene lithologies (concentrating on the conglomeratic facies) from these two areas.

Pine Mountain-Piru Creek area, Paleogene lithology

Thick, often impenetrable, brush cover prevents extensive lateral observations of the Eocene section of this area. Measured sections, however, from the Mutau Flat, lower Piru Creek and Canton Canyon (Fig. 1), where access is relatively easy and exposures are good, permit the geology to be reconstructed in three dimensions.

Mutau Flat. A large scale geologic map of Mutau Flat and vicinity has recently been compiled by Givens (1974) from the unpublished theses of Schlee (1952), Kiessling (1958) and Jestes (1963). The middle and upper Eocene strata in this area have a combined maximum thickness of about 4,700 m. These rocks are probable equivalents of the Juncal and Matilija Formations of the Santa Ynez Mountains (Givens, 1974). The Eocene basement contact is faulted in most exposures, although locally basal beds lie with depositional unconformity upon the plutonic basement.

The lower 3,000 m of section is principally mudstone and conglomerate, in which individual beds vary considerably in thickness. The mudstone thickens abruptly toward the south-southwest, away from the

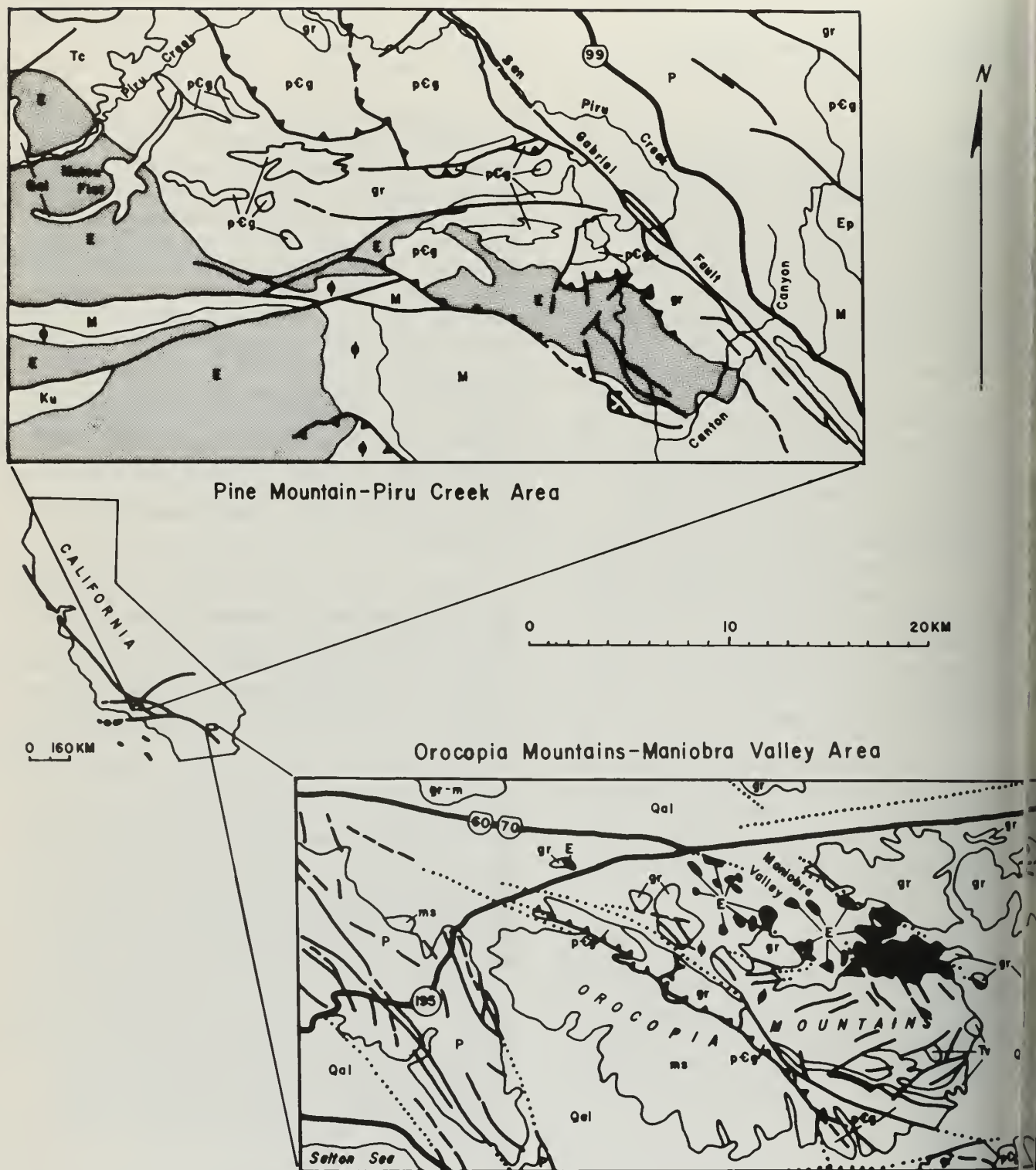


Figure 1. Distribution of Eocene strata in the Pine Mountain-Piru Creek area and the Orocopa Mountains-Maniobra Valley area.

the basement contact, whereas the conglomerate thins in this direction and laterally wedge out within several kilometers of the basal contact.

conglomerate exposed in a fresh roadcut at the northeast end of Mutau Flat contains rounded pebbles and cobbles admixed with large angular granitic blocks up to 1 m in size. The composition of the pebbles and cobbles is: granite and granodiorite 30-40 percent, gneiss 10-15 percent, quartzite 10-15 percent, gray, green, and red volcanic material 20-35 percent, and sandstone 5-15 percent. The bedding and clast imbrications suggest that the material was deposited by currents flowing toward the south and southwest.

Piru Creek. For the lower Piru Creek the most detailed large-scale geologic maps are the unpublished theses of Kriz (1947), Shepherd (1960) and Jestes (1963). The basement contact mapped in the Mutau Flat area between basement and Paleogene strata can be traced eastward to the lower Piru Creek (Fig. 1), where the granitic basement rocks rest directly on a conglomerate. The Paleogene sedimentary sequence is as much as 1,500 m thick and is unconformably overlain by the Sespe Formation. Similar to the Mutau Flat area, the sequence is dominantly conglomerate, shale, and siltstone, although sandstone of late Eocene age is an important component in the lower part.

In the lower Piru Creek the sequence is (from bottom to top): 1,000 m of conglomerate, 1,000 m of shale and siltstone, 650 m of conglomerate, 1,500 m of shale and siltstone, and 1,000 m of medium bedded, fine-grained sandstone. Except for a few species of foraminifers of possible Eocene age from the lower conglomerate (Kriz, 1947), fossils diagnostic of age have not been reported from the lower two units of conglomerate and lower shale and siltstone; consequently, the age of the lower part of the sequence is uncertain. Middle Eocene foraminiferal assemblages have been reported from the upper shale and siltstone unit (Howell, 1974).

In composition conglomerate clasts are 25-50 percent granite and granodiorite (one variety having 2-3 cm long pink potassium-feldspar phenocrysts), 10-20 percent gneiss, 0-10 percent quartzite, and 40-60 percent gray, green, red, and purple volcanic material. A few clasts are as large as 3 m; however, the predominant size range is from 1 cm to 1.5 m, and the mean size is 8 cm. Although the largest clasts are granitic and gneissic, there is a significant number of "Poway"-like red volcanic clasts in the 4-25 cm size range.

The granitic and gneissic clasts are megascopically similar to basement rock cropping out north of the Paleogene exposures. Numerous sedimentary structures, including clast imbrications, rip-ups, cross-beds, and channels, consistently indicate a north to south flow direction.

Canton Canyon. Detailed maps of the Canton Canyon are 4 km east of lower Piru Creek, are contained in the unpublished theses of Shepherd (1960) and Kriz (1947) and an unpublished map by J. C. Crowell (personal commun., 1974).

The Paleogene sediments, which are almost entirely fine grained, are in fault contact with the granitic basement terrane along the east extension of the boundary fault described above in the Mutau Flat and lower Piru Creek areas. The basal rocks in Canton Canyon are lenticular beds of conglomerate and sandstone, from which middle Eocene megafossils have been collected (Shepherd, 1960). The bulk of the section is 3,300 m of shale and siltstone (Shepherd, 1960). Overlying this is 400 m of massive sandstone overlain by a non-marine fluvial sequence of siltstone, sandstone, and conglomerate. This latter unit unconformably underlies the nonmarine Sespe Formation.

Pine Mountain-Piru Creek area, Paleogene paleogeography

The absence of good faunal control for precise biostratigraphic correlation and

the rapid lithofacies changes along strike limit any attempt to reconstruct ancient paleogeographies for all the different stages of the Paleogene. It does appear, however, that for much of the Eocene a shoreline was located in the Mutau Flats area and extended eastward (Fig. 2). The evidence for this includes: (1) the middle Eocene buttress unconformity in the Mutau Flat area, (2) large angular blocks of local basement in the conglomerates of Mutau Flat and lower Piru Creek, (3) the rapid wedge out of conglomerate in the Mutau Flat area towards the west and south, (4) the north to south flow directions inferred for the Paleogene strata of Mutau Flat and lower Piru Creek and (5) the presence of a nonmarine middle or upper Eocene facies in the Canton Canyon area.

Maniobra Valley, Paleogene lithology

The Eocene rocks (Maniobra Formation of Crowell and Suski, 1959) in the Orocochia Mountains are the only rocks of this age east of the San Andreas fault in southern California. Detailed maps of this area are included in the unpublished theses of Williams (1956) and Gillies (1958) and in the published report of Crowell and Susuki (1959). Foraminifers reported by Johnston (1961) indicate that the stratigraphically lowest beds are probably early Eocene and remainder of the formation is middle Eocene.

The basal conglomerate, breccia, and sandstone beds are in depositional contact (buttress unconformity) upon granite. These coarse-grained facies grade to the southwest and west into finer grained rocks. Boulders as large as 9 m inferred to have been derived from the underlying and adjacent granite are incorporated in the basal conglomerate. Most of these large clasts are subrounded to angular. In composition the pebbles and cobbles of the conglomerate are quartzite, granite, quartz monzonite, granodiorite, gneiss, and slightly metamorphosed siltstone (Kirkpatrick, 1958). Unlike the middle Eocene conglomerates elsewhere in southern California no metavolcanic clasts occur here (Howell, 1974). The aggregate thickness of the conglomerate and inter-

bedded sandstone is approximately 600

Overlying the coarse clastic facies is approximately 900 m of interbedded sandstone and siltstone. These rocks are principally exposed in the western part of the outcrop, where the underlying conglomerate and breccia have wedged out.

Maniobra Valley, Paleogene Paleogeography

The conglomerates and breccia beds probably represent an environment of deposition on or near a marine shoreline inferred from the following observations: (1) the conglomerate abuts the granite basement with angular unconformity, (2) clasts within the conglomerate are as large as 9 m, (3) the composition of the large clasts is the same as that of the local basement, (4) although most of the clasts are rounded, some are angular "joint blocks", (5) the conglomerate appears to pinch out to the west and west where shelf faunules have been reported, (6) the fauna from mudstone associated with the conglomerate suggests inner neritic environments of deposition (Crowell and Susuki, 1959; Johnston, 1961).

CONCLUSION

Working from a suggestion from J. Crowell, Kirkpatrick (1958) correlated the Maniobra Formation with similar appearing Eocene rocks northwest of the intersection of the Big Pine and San Andreas faults. He concluded that it was possible that 310 km of post Eocene right-slip on the San Andreas fault had separated these two areas.

It appears, however, that there are nearshore early and middle Eocene lithofacies in the southwest and south part of the Piru Creek area that offer a more compelling match. Middle Eocene paleogeographic studies for the Topatopa and Santa Ana Mountains and Simi Hills suggest an inferred middle Eocene east-west mi-embayment, the northeast limit of which would have been in the Piru Creek area (Howell, 1974). The Maniobra Formation seems to represent the east limit of this

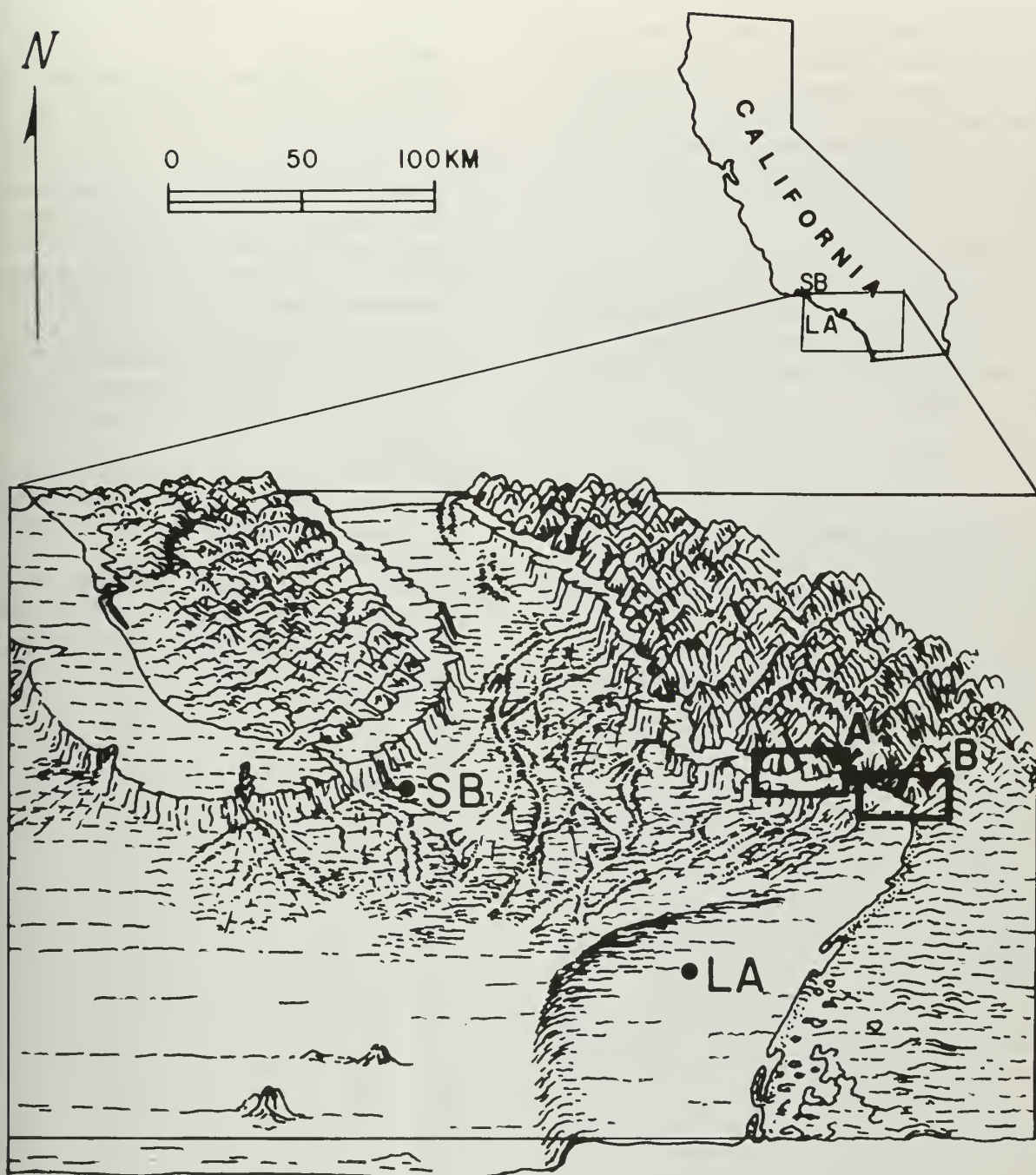


Figure 2. Middle Eocene paleogeographic reconstruction of southern California after a spastic adjustment for 260 km of right-slip on the San Andreas fault. Block A = Mountain-Piru Creek area; Block B = Orocopia Mountains-Maniobra Valley area; Santa Barbara; LA = Los Angeles.

embayment.

Because the exact position of the middle Eocene shorelines cannot be located, an accurate value of slip on the San Andreas cannot be determined. Slip of 220-280 km is compatible with the data, and 260 km establishes the reconstruction shown in figure 2.

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MID-TERTIARY CONGLOMERATES AND THEIR BEARING ON TRANSVERSE RANGE TECTONICS, SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA

By Robert G. Bohannon, U.S. Geological Survey, Denver, Colo. 80225

ABSTRACT

Coarse redbeds characterize mid-Tertiary continental sedimentary rocks in southern California. They include the Simmler, Sespe, Plush Ranch, and Vasquez Formations, and the formation of Diligencia, which are probably in part contemporaneous. These rocks contain locally derived conglomerates accumulated in several fault-bounded basins. These east-west trending basins associated uplift areas apparently used the present trace of the San Andreas and San Gabriel faults and were offset by them.

INTRODUCTION

Mid-Tertiary continental rocks in the Transverse Ranges are characterized by coarse redbeds, which mark an interruption in the extensive marine deposition that prevailed in much of southern California during the Tertiary Period. This phase of tectonics and sedimentation occurred about the same time as, or just prior to, the initiation of Tertiary volcanism in southern California and triple junction migration along the coast (Atwater, 1970), and just prior to the inferred initiation of strike-slip faulting on the San Andreas system. In order to understand the tectonic framework and sedimentologic history of these basins in existence at that time, the Simmler, Sespe, Plush Ranch, and Vasquez Formations, and the formation of Diligencia were studied in 10 localities (fig. 1). Particular attention was given the conglomerate facies and their clast types, provenance, and paleocurrent features. Comparative analysis helped document basin history and development; using this information, individual basins were compared lithographically and chronologically.

RELATIONS

Age control comes from fauna in underlying and overlying strata and from potassium-argon age determinations taken on rhyolite flows in three of the areas. The relative age relations of the mid-Tertiary

rocks studied are shown in figure 2. Basalt dated in the Plush Ranch Formation yields ages of 17.4 ± 3.7 and 19.6 ± 1.1 m.y. (million years), in the Vasquez Formation 23.9 ± 0.8 and 24.9 ± 2.1 m.y., and in the formation of Diligencia 22.4 ± 2.9 m.y. (Crowell, 1973). Although the dated rocks are not precisely the same age, the sedimentary sections containing these dated rocks possibly overlap in age and appear to be part of a unique tectonic and sedimentary phase which may have developed in different places through time.

BASIN DESCRIPTIONS

Simmler Formation

The Simmler Formation in the La Panza Range (fig. 1, no. 1) consists of coarse conglomerate and minor arkose. Angular clasts of arkose and rounded clasts of medium-grained biotite quartz monzonite, granodiorite and devitrified porphyritic felsites are the predominant clasts. Pebble imbrication suggests transport from southwest to northeast.

A thick section of Simmler occurs immediately northeast of the Nacimientito (Rinconada) fault; however, none occurs on its southwest side. This distribution and the paleocurrent indicators suggest that the Simmler Formation was derived off an active scarp at or near the Nacimientito fault (Vedder and Brown, 1968); however, clasts in the Simmler indicate a conglomeratic provenance. According to T. W. Dibblee (personal commun., 1974), nearby rocks across the fault are nearly all sandstone and shale, not conglomerate. This problem could be alleviated by assuming that conglomerate once existed in the proposed source but was now eroded, or that strike slip occurred on the Nacimientito fault during or after deposition of the Simmler Formation.

In the northern Cuyama badlands (fig. 1, no. 3), coarse conglomerate of the Simmler Formation contains clasts of medium-grained muscovite-biotite quartz monzonite, banded muscovite-biotite gneiss, rare aegerine-hornblende-

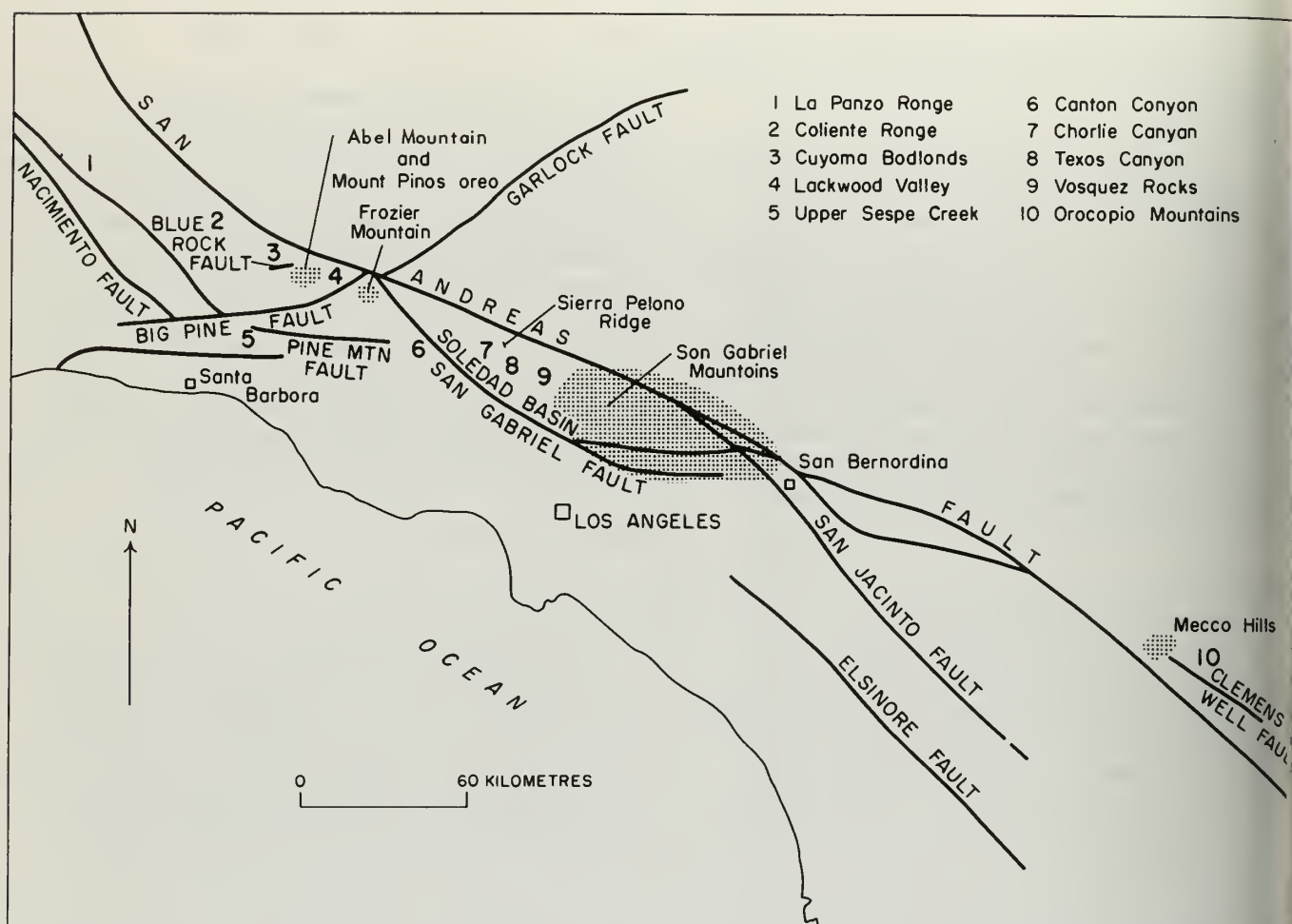


Figure 1.--Index map showing the location of the 10 study areas in southern California.

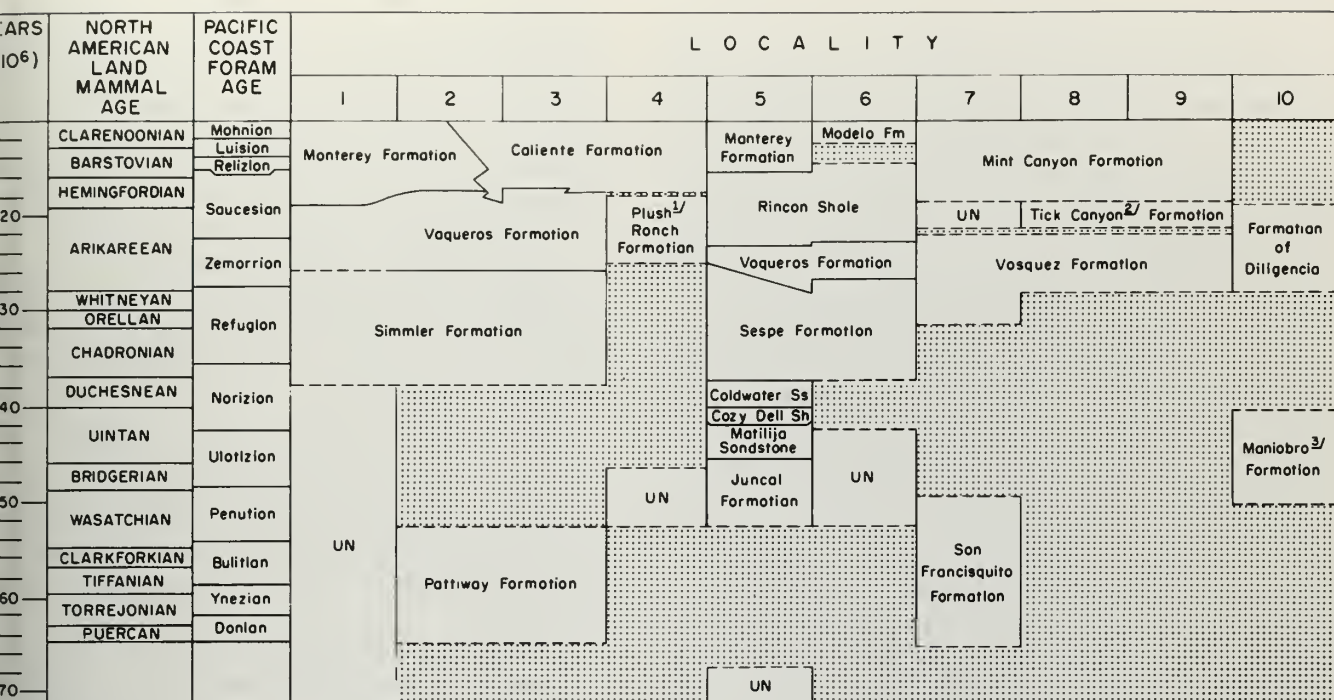
muscovite granite and, at a few localities, dacite, oxyhornblende welded tuff, and flow-banded rhyolite. Most of the section has paleocurrent indicators that indicate south to north transport; however, the few localities that contain abundant silicic volcanic clasts have pebble imbrication suggestive of east to west and southeast to northwest transport. This transport data, and the fact that the Simmler fines to the northwest suggest that its principal source was to the south or southeast. An exposure of banded biotite gneiss, biotite granodiorite, and quartz monzonite occurs under the Caliente Formation just to the south across the Blue Rock fault, south of which the Simmler Formation, underlying Pattiway Formation, and overlying Vaqueros Formation are missing. This area could have been a highland of basement rocks

that supplied detritus to the Simmler Formation. The silicic volcanic clast suite may have been derived from the east across the San Andreas fault.

In the eastern Caliente Range (fig. no. 2), the Simmler Formation consists of arkose and siltstone with only minor conglomerate like that in the Cuyama badlands. Current lineations on sandstone beds are consistent with south to north and southeast to northwest current flow.

Sespe Formation

On upper Sespe Creek (fig. 1, no. 5) conglomerates of the Sespe Formation have clasts of coarse-grained arkose, medium-grained muscovite-biotite quartz monzonite, a variety of recrystallized dacite



ormon, (1964).

ohns, (1940).

rowell and Susuki, (1959).

Figure 2.-Correlation chart showing the relative ages of studied sections and age ranges of dated basalt samples. Line pattern in series column indicates zone of controversy of series boundaries; stippled pattern indicates nondeposition or erosion. UN, unnamed rocks.

rhodacites, rare anorthosite (plagioclase AN₂₅), and mafic volcanics. Pebble imbrication shows clast transport from the west across the Big Pine and Pine Mountain faults. It is possible that the crystal-rich clasts were derived from the highland area of the Cuyama badlands area, and the clasts from Eocene sandstone exposures to the north; however, neither area is known to contain anorthosite or mafic volcanics. It is also possible that the Nacimiento (conada) and Pine Mountain faults were not time continuous and that right slip or left-slip occurred on them (T. W. Dibblee, personal commun., 1974). If so, the clasts would have been deposited southeast of the present outcrop area and could have received detritus from the Alamo Mountain area or from across the San Gabriel fault.

In Canton Canyon the Sespe Formation (fig. 1, no. 6) is coarse conglomerate, sandstone, and immature sandstone with clasts of anorthosite (plagioclase AN₄₅₋₅₀),

amphibolite, banded augite-biotite gneiss, biotite-hornblende syenite, pyroxene gabbro, quartz syenite, norite, and unmistakable 220-m.y.-old Lowe Granodiorite of Miller, 1946 (a biotite monzonite, syenite, and granodiorite that is commonly sheared and contains garnet and large potassium feldspar phenocrysts). Pebble imbrication data suggest west to east transport from across the San Gabriel fault. Outcrops of anorthosite and related rocks occur in the western San Gabriel Mountains to the east; however, the large size of clasts (up to 7 m) indicates a high relief source close by. Right slip of about 60 km is required on the San Gabriel fault to juxtapose the Sespe in Canton Canyon to the anorthosite-Lowe Granodiorite source in the San Gabriel Mountains (Crowell, 1954).

Plush Ranch Formation of Carman (1964)

In Lockwood Valley (fig. 1, no. 4), the Plush Ranch Formation of Carman (1964) contains three conglomeratic members. One, at the base of the formation (member 1 of Carman, 1964), has clasts of medium-grained biotite quartz monzonite, banded pyroxene-biotite gneiss, coarse- to medium-grained syenite, and rare biotite-rich augen and porphyroblastic gneiss like that gneiss cropping out on Frazier Mountain to the southeast of locality 4. Pebble imbrication data in this conglomerate unit are ambiguous, with transport both from the northwest and from due south. Overlying this lower conglomerate is a sequence of interbedded arkose and siltstone (members 2 and 3 of Carman, 1964) that contains, near its top, large coarse lenses of monolithologic breccia with clasts of coarse-grained biotite granite identical with the Jurassic(?) Mount Pinos Granite of Carman (1964) exposed a few kilometres to the north. Near the top of the Plush Ranch Formation, conglomerate and breccia of member 5 (Carman, 1964) occur in a thick and long, but narrow, unit along the Big Pine fault. The large clasts within the unit include biotite-rich augen, porphyroblastic gneiss, and medium-grained biotite quartz monzonite. Pebble imbrication data (Kahle, 1966; this report) show transport from south to north.

The lower conglomerate of the Plush Ranch possibly had different sources. Clast lithologies such as augen gneiss and syenite relate to southerly source areas on Frazier Mountain and possibly to the Soledad basin, while granitic gneiss and quartz monzonite are like rocks found several km to the north on Mount Pinos. The breccia lenses must have been derived from the area of Mount Pinos, because their coarse, poorly sorted, massive texture suggests that they originated as landslides off a high, nearby source and their clast lithology is identical to that of the Mount Pinos Granite. The breccia along the Big Pine fault has clasts that suggest a source in the augen-gneiss terrain of Frazier Mountain. Their massive, poorly sorted character and coarse clasts indicate that the source was

nearby and had considerable relief; however, Frazier Mountain is about 12-km southeast, across the Big Pine fault which suggests possible strike slip on that fault. Hill and Dibblee (1953), Poyner (1960), and Crowell (1968) present additional data to support the claim of 14 km of left slip on the Big Pine fault and Crowell (1968) suggested that it has a two-stage displacement history that involved dip slip in the mid-Tertiary and later strike slip in the Quaternary.

Vasquez Formation

In the Soledad basin the Vasquez Formation occurs in three separate outcrop areas--Charlie Canyon (fig. 1, no. 7), Texas Canyon (no. 8), and Vasquez Rock (no. 9).

The Charlie Canyon section is mostly sandstone and siltstone at its base, but coarsens upward and is conglomeratic about mid-section. This conglomerate and associated shale chip breccias occur in beds and lenses at the top of a sandstone unit and contain (2-10 cm) clasts predominantly of coarse- to medium-grained arkose, medium-grained muscovite-biotite quartz monzonite, and hornblende-biotite quartz diorite, and some banded garnet-biotite gneiss. Higher in the section, conglomerate is the predominant lithology; quartz diorite clasts increase in percentage to the top of the section where there is a coarse monolithologic breccia of them with clasts as large as 5 m. Paleocurrent features are scarce in the lower, finer grained units in the Charlie Canyon section but are excellent in the higher and coarser units. Pebble imbrication data show transport from east to west about mid-section, with a uniform shift to transport from nearly south to north at the top of the section.

The paleocurrent data in the Charlie Canyon Vasquez Formation suggest an easterly to southerly source area and the large size of many clasts indicate that it was nearby; however, the only exposures for some distance east and southeast, across the San Francisquito fault (fig. 3), are of the Cretaceous Pelona Schist, a distinctive greenschist.

does not occur as clasts in the Texas Canyon section. Konigsberg (1967) proposed that granitic, high-grade metamorphic and sedimentary rocks tectonically overlain the Pelona Schist, but were eroded by the Sierra Pelona anticline (fig. 3), leaving a core of Pelona Schist exposed. Tectonic capping of the Pelona Schist can be demonstrated on the southeast flank of Sierra Pelona Ridge, where greenstone is overlain by granitic rocks on a matrix of mylonite.

The Vasquez Formation in Texas Canyon is predominantly conglomerate, which Konigsberg (1966) subdivided on the basis of matrix type and matrix color. The Pelona Schist and Vasquez Canyon faults bound the north- and south sides of the Texas Canyon basin, respectively, and both faults contain locally derived breccias. On the west side the formation contains breccia of foliated medium-grained quartzite, and on the southeast side, a coarse biotite-rich augen-gneiss breccia, some of which are faulted against basement rocks of types similar to their clasts. Conglomerate in the central part of the basin, on the section, has clasts of pillow basalt (plagioclase, An₆₀) with extensive alteration to calcite, banded hornblende-muscovite-biotite gneiss, and banded rhyolite. This conglomerate contains fragments of coarse-grained granite but none of basalt near the top of the section. There is also a conglomerate unit at the top of the section on the east side of the basin which contains clasts of coarse-grained anorthosite, diorite, gabbro, Lowe Granodiorite, syenite, augen gneiss, and red andesite.

Although paleocurrent indicators are absent in the Texas Canyon rocks, the correlation of many of the units is obvious. Clasts in the breccias that flank the basin match adjacent basement rock lithologies and were probably locally derived from dip-slip fault scarps of the Pelona Schist and Vasquez Canyon faults (fig. 3). The anorthosite conglomerate bears clast lithologies like basement rocks of the northern San Gabriel Mountains and of the Vasquez Formation volcanic sequence near western San Gabriels, and thus

probably originated in that area.

If so, the alluvial fan represented by this detritus must have spread across deposits of the Vasquez Formation at Vasquez Rocks; hence, the Texas Canyon and Vasquez Rocks basins must have been joined at that time. It is not clear where the source for the basalt clasts in the lower part of the section was, however, as there are no known occurrences of similar basalt in the area. The basalt in the Vasquez Rocks area does not have the extensive calcite alteration nor the dense plagioclase lath concentration of these clasts, and thus does not offer a likely source. It is possible the clasts were derived from northeast across the San Andreas fault.

The Vasquez Formation at Vasquez Rocks has two distinct conglomerate clast suites. One at the base and top of the section contains clasts of coarse-grained anorthosite, biotite-hornblende gabbro, medium-grained syenite, and banded biotite gneiss. In the middle of the section a unit of crossbedded sandstone and breccia lenses contains large clasts of epidote-rich Lowe Granodiorite and basalt similar to the Vasquez basalts.

Pebble imbrication in the upper conglomerate indicates transport from the south, across the Soledad fault (fig. 3), and the anorthosite terrain there matches the clast lithology. These data suggest that the Soledad fault was active as a dip-slip fault during Vasquez deposition. Paleocurrent data are absent in the granodiorite-bearing breccias (Lowe); however, the unique lithology of the Lowe makes it easily relatable to a source. Nearby outcrops of epidote-rich Lowe occur due east and northeast of the breccias. Vasquez basalts, which are stratigraphically lower than the Lowe-bearing breccias, occur in this source area in patches. This area, then, probably provided the source for these breccias. Very little, if any, of the Vasquez Rocks section appears to have been derived from the west, as arkose, siltstone, and borates are faulted against gneiss there and conglomerates in that area bear anorthosite clasts from the southeast.

Formation of Diligencia

Several conglomeratic units occur in the formation of Diligencia in the Orocopia Mountains (fig. 1, no. 10). Lenticular conglomerate beds at the base of the section contain pebbles and cobbles of banded muscovite-biotite gneiss, of medium-grained biotite quartz monzonite, and of granodiorite. Higher in the section, interbedded with a lakebed sequence of arkose, siltstone, limestone, and borates, there are a few massive beds of poorly sorted conglomerate with pebbles and small cobbles of anorthosite, gabbro, and possible Lowe Granodiorite. In the upper part of the section, exposed in the western part of the formation, a coarse conglomerate contains clasts of medium-grained syenite, pilotaxitic basalt of the same lithology and texture as the basalt clasts found in the Vasquez Formation in Texas Canyon, and less commonly augen gneiss. Coarse unsorted breccia lenses having clasts of coarse-grained biotite granite occur interstratified with this conglomerate.

Basement rock exposures north and east of the Orocopia Mountains consist of quartz monzonite, granodiorite, and gneiss that probably provided the source for the conglomerate at the base of the formation of Diligencia. Just south of the Diligencia exposures, across the Clemens Well fault (fig. 1), outcrops of anorthosite, gabbro, and syenite could have provided the detritus to the thin, but massive conglomerate beds interstratified with the lakebed sequence. The granite breccias in the upper part of the section probably had their source immediately to the north where granite crops out today. The large basalt clasts, however, are unlike any rocks presently exposed in the nearby area. They are coarsest in the west and fine to the east and southeast, which suggests a westerly source that could possibly be either eroded or buried under clastic sediments in the Mecca Hills (fig. 1). Using the following palinspastic reconstruction, the Mecca Hills area could also provide the source for the similar basalt clasts in the Texas Canyon area.

PALINSPASTIC RECONSTRUCTION

Crowell (1962, 1968), Ehlig and Ehlig (1972), Carman (1964), Poynor (1960), Kahle (1966), and Sage (1973) have outlined evidence suggesting that 210 km right slip has occurred on the San Andreas fault, 60 km right slip on the San Gabriel fault, and 14 km left slip on the Big Bend fault since the Miocene. By making palinspastic adjustments to account for the amounts of slip, a diagram such as figure 3 can be constructed. Figure 3 shows proposed distribution of basins that received sediment in the mid-Tertiary. This diagram can be constructed because the total documented slip on the faults involved appears to have taken place after deposition in the basins involved. Also, I believe that the resultant basement rock and source area distribution fits best with observed sedimentologic data gathered in this study.

Faults thought to have been active in normal sense during the mid-Tertiary are shown as hachured lines, present-day outcrops of mid-Tertiary rocks are shown as a lined pattern, and other areas thought to have received continental sediment are shown stippled on figure 3. With this configuration, the Pelona Schist exposures on Abel Mountain and Sierra Pelona Ridge, and the exposures of the Precambrian Orocopia Schist of Miller (1944) in the Orocopia Mountains, as well as the corresponding Sierra Pelona and Orocopia anticlines, appear to line up as one major east-west trending feature. This structure, which must have been forming in the mid-Tertiary but had not yet exposed schist, is flanked on the north and northeast by the Blue Rock-San Francisquito faults, and the Simmler, Charlie Canyon, and Diligencia basins. The Simmler and Charlie Canyon sections are very similar, suggesting that they were deposited in an interconnected basin.

On the south, the Sierra Pelona-Orocopia anticlines are flanked by correlative faults and basins, which include the El Pine and Soledad faults, and the Lockwood Valley, Texas Canyon, and Vasquez Rock basins. Granite, which occurs in outcrops

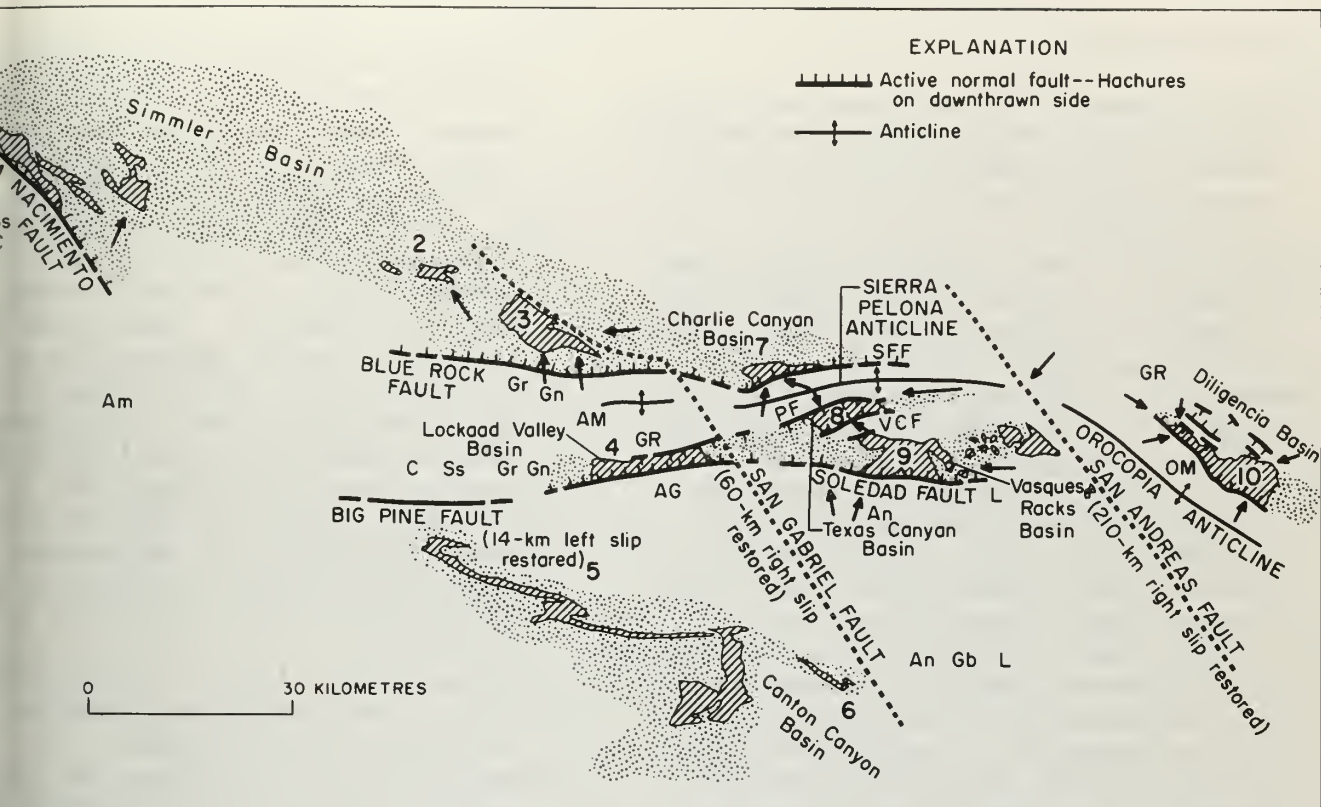


Figure 3.--Map showing proposed distribution of mid-Tertiary basins after palinspastic restoration of slip on the San Andreas, San Gabriel, and Big Pine faults. Arrows indicate transport directions; stipple indicates inferred depositional areas of basins. Ss, sandstone; C, conglomerate; Gr, granitic; GR, granite; Gn, gneiss; AG, augen gneiss; An, anorthosite; Gb, gabbro; L, Lowe Granodiorite; SFF, San Francisquito fault; VCF, Vasquez Canyon fault; PF, Pelona fault; AM, Abel Mountain; OM, Orocofia Mtns. of Miller (1946). Numbered areas refer to fig. 1. Lined pattern indicates present outcrop areas.

of the Lockwood Valley and Orocofia s, occurs in the Plush Ranch, Texas n, and Vasquez Formations, and the tion of Diligencia in an east-west te province that apparently crosses ierra Pelona-Orocofia anticlinal re. Augen-gneiss exposures and clasts occur south of the Big Pine fault, en the Texas Canyon and Vasquez Rocks s and south of the Orocofia basin, do ise. Anorthosite gabbro and assoc- rocks occur adjacent to the Canton n, Vasquez Rocks, and Diligencia s, which received detritus from them. us, the mid-Tertiary in southern ornia appears dominated by east-west tural trends, which include normal s and associated basins and uplifts n actively forming and rising anti-

clinal feature. The San Andreas and San Gabriel faults do not appear to have been active during that time, but subsequent right-slip movements on these fault zones have displaced these features to their present positions.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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OFFSET OF THE UPPER MIOCENE CALIENTE AND MINT CANYON FORMATIONS ALONG THE SAN GABRIEL AND SAN ANDREAS FAULTS

erry L. Ehlig and Keith W. Ehler
Department of Geology
California State University
Los Angeles, California 90032

Bruce M. Crowe
Department of Geological Sciences
University of California
Santa Barbara, California 93106

ACT

unique rapakivi-textured quartz
e porphyry and quartz monzonite por-
y occur in a Tertiary volcanic complex
e northern Chocolate Mountains north-
of the San Andreas fault. Identical
yries occur as clasts in both the
ne Mint Canyon Formation of Soledad
southwest of the San Andreas fault
the Miocene Caliente Formation of the
ood Valley - Quatal Canyon area west
e San Gabriel fault.

osition of the Mint Canyon Formation
red within a broad westward draining
h which crossed the San Andreas fault
Soledad Pass. Conglomerate along the
h axis consists mainly of volcanic
s, derived from the Chocolate Mountain
nic complex, which include a small
centage of the unique quartz latite
yry. Clasts in the northern and
ern margins of the formation consist
ominantly of locally derived basement
types. Conglomerates of the Caliente
ation contain the same clast assemblage
curs in the Mint Canyon Formation.

The Mint Canyon Formation is offset
the rapakivi source area by about 150
s of right slip along the San Andreas
r and the Caliente formation is offset
the Mint Canyon Formation by about
0 miles of right slip along the San
el fault, giving a total displacement
5-190 miles along this part of the
Andreas system. This displacement is
ame as that shown by pre-Cenozoic
ent rocks. Since the youngest parts
ne offset formations are about 12 my.
the maximum age of this part of the
Andreas fault system is no greater
12 my.

INTRODUCTION

The Mint Canyon Formation, described
by Jahns (1940) and Oakeshott (1958),
crops out in the Soledad Basin, 30 miles
north of Los Angeles, and is situated
between the San Gabriel and San Andreas
faults, being truncated on the southwest
by the San Gabriel fault. The Caliente
Formation is widely exposed to the west
of the San Andreas fault in the region
southwest of Bakersfield. The part of the
Caliente Formation referred to here,
described by Carman (1964), crops out in
the Lockwood Valley - Quatal Canyon area,
directly west of the juncture of the San
Gabriel and San Andreas faults. The
Caliente Formation of the Caliente Range
and Cuyama Valley area is described by
Hill and others (1958). Both formations
are of fluvial and lacustrine origin and
contain vertebrate faunas spanning Medial
Miocene to early Pliocene time (Jahns,
1940; James, 1963). Carman (1964, p. 42-
43) concluded that the lower fluvial parts
of the two formations were deposited in
the same westward flowing drainage system
and later off-set along the San Gabriel
fault by about 20 miles of right slip, as
was also postulated elsewhere by Crowell
(1952). This conclusion was based on the
similarity of clasts in conglomerate with-
in the two formations, including anortho-
site clasts, whose only known source is in
the western San Gabriel Mountains, and
volcanic clasts, foreign to both areas
and assumed to be from the general area of
the present Mojave Desert.

Among the volcanic clasts which occur
in the Mint Canyon and Caliente formations
is a unique rapakivi-textured quartz
latite porphyry. The identical rock
occurs in place within the northern Choco-
late Mountains on the east side of the San
Andreas fault near the Salton Sea (Ehlig

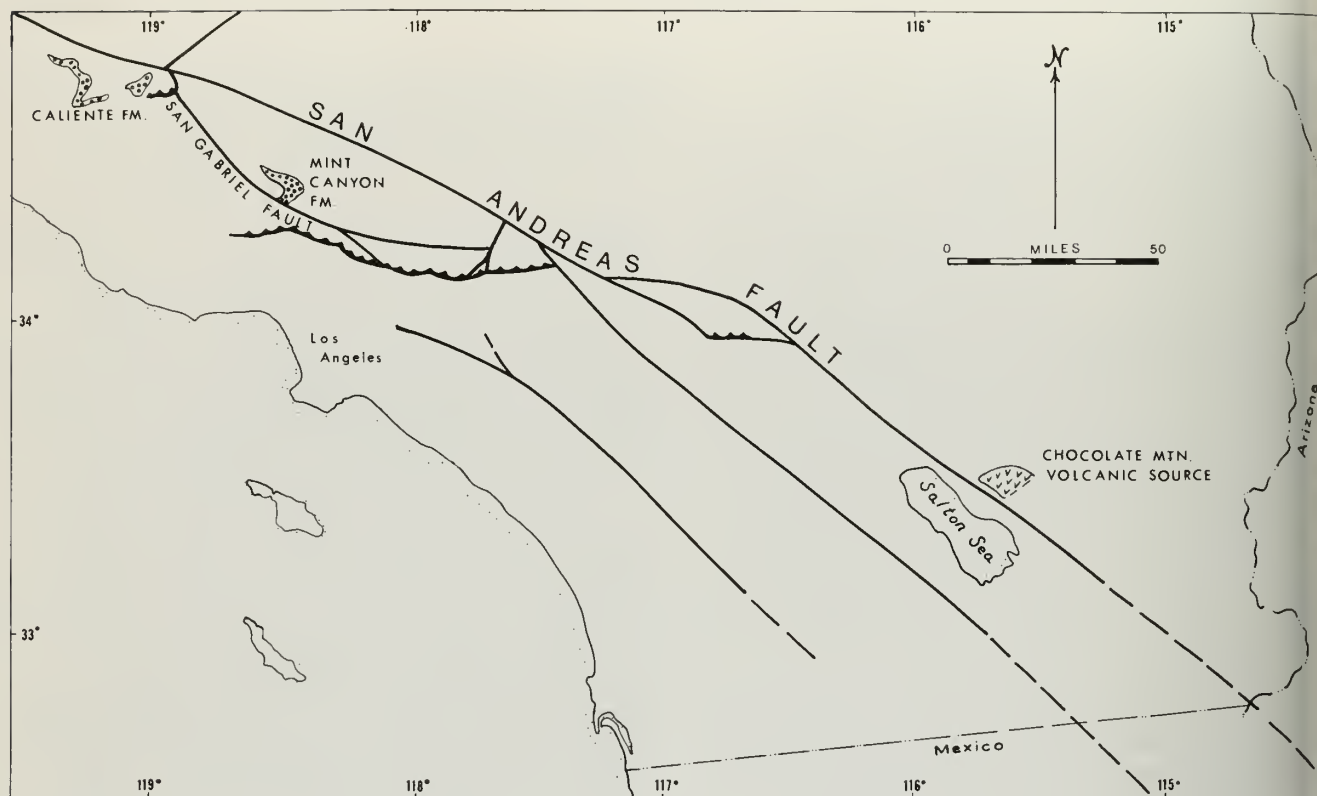


Figure 1.

Index map showing location of Mint Canyon Formation, Caliente Formation and Chocolate Mountain source terrane.

and Ehlert, 1972). Adjoining basement terrane in the Orocopia Mountains contains anorthosite, syenite, augen gneiss and Lowe Granodiorite identical in petrology, history and age to that of the Soledad Basin and western San Gabriel Mountains (Crowell and Walker, 1962; Silver, 1971). Other volcanic rocks strikingly similar to those found in both the Caliente and Mint Canyon Formations also occur in the northern Chocolate Mountains and are significantly different from other assemblages observed in volcanic terranes within the Mojave Desert. This, in combination with other findings summarized below, indicates Lockwood Valley and the Soledad Basin were located to the west of the northern Chocolate Mountains, near the present position of the Salton Sea, during Miocene deposition of the Caliente and Mint Canyon Formations.

DEPOSITIONAL ENVIRONMENT OF MINT CANYON FORMATION

The Mint Canyon Formation crops out in a broad southwestward plunging syncline within the central and southwestern Soledad Basin (Fig. 2). In most places it overlies a small and variable thickness of the Tick Canyon Formation which contains a late early Miocene vertebrate fauna significantly older than that found in the main body of the Mint Canyon Formation (Jahns, 1940, p. 169). The unconformity at the base of the combined Mint Canyon and Tick Canyon Formation transects a mosaic of west to southwest trending faults which were active both during and after deposition of the Oligocene - lower Miocene Vasquez Formation. Coarse locally derived conglomerates within the Tick Canyon Formation appear to fill canyons in a pre-existing topography.

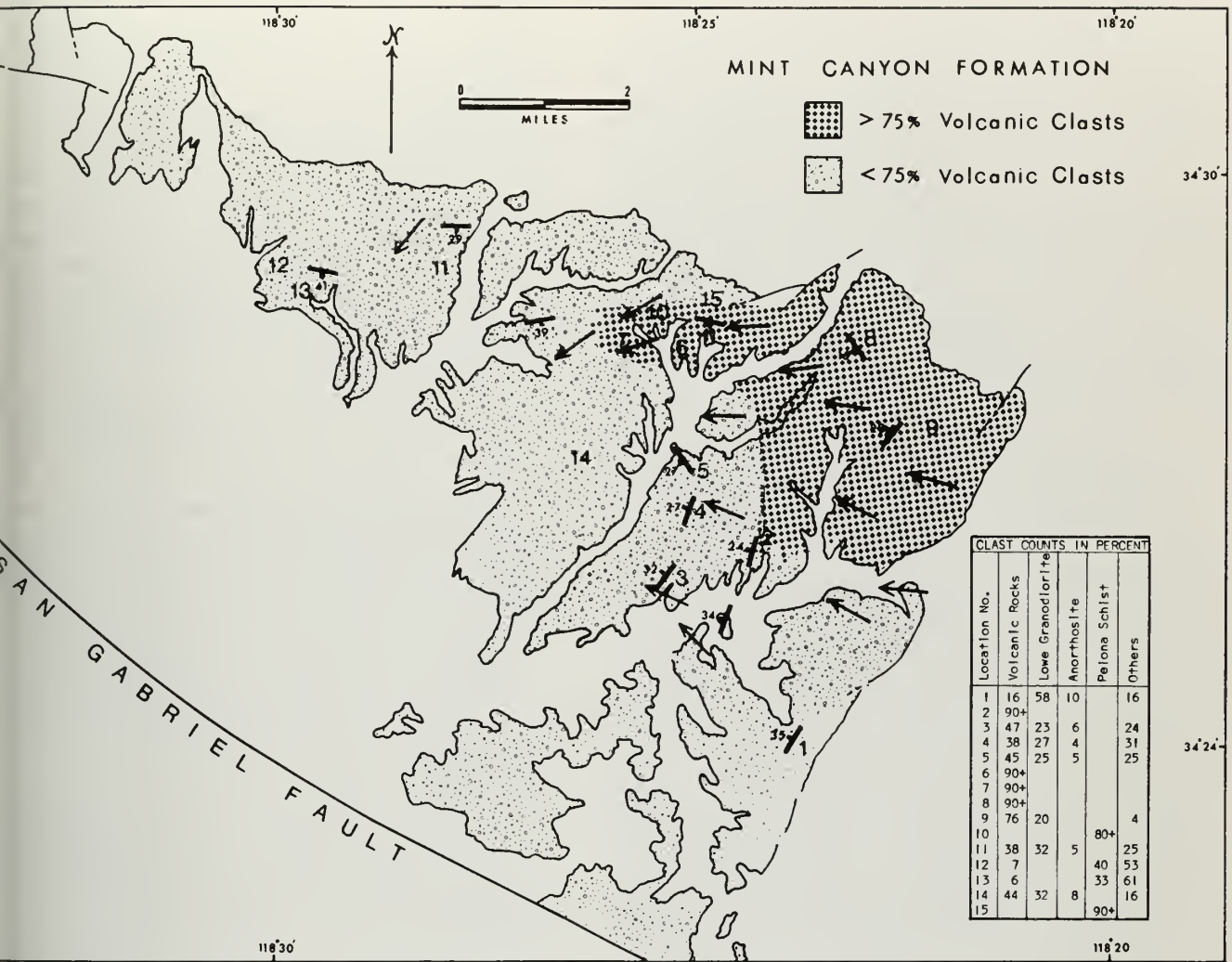


Figure 2. Map of the Mint Canyon Formation showing paleocurrent directions and clast type distribution.

of moderate relief. The upper part of the formation includes much reddish sandstone and siltstone, perhaps reflecting the development of a broad valley of moderate relief. Jahns, (1940, p. 162) considers the contact between the Mint Canyon and the Soledad Canyon Formations as an unconformity; however, in the eastern part of the area the contact appears gradational. The transition is marked by a change from largely locally derived sediments to conglomerate and conglomeratic sandstone containing abundant exotic volcanic clasts. The onset of Mint Canyon deposition indicates an expansion of the area draining

into the Soledad Basin.

The Mint Canyon Formation has an exposed thickness of about 6,000 feet along the axis of the Soledad Basin. Here it consists almost entirely of sandstone and conglomerate of fluvial origin. Strata exposed to the south and west are in large part of lacustrine origin. In the vicinity of Bouquet Canyon the exposed thickness is about 4,000 feet (Jahns, 1940, p. 162). Further northwest between San Francisquito and Elizabeth Lake Canyons, the Mint Canyon Formation is overlapped by the slightly younger marine Castaic Formation.

The northwestward thinning of the Mint Canyon Formation is partly the result of erosion prior to deposition of the Castaic Formation but also reflects original thinning toward the northern margin of the basin in which the Mint Canyon Formation was deposited. Paleocurrent measurements obtained within the fluvial part of the Mint Canyon Formation indicate current flow was essentially from east to west (see Fig. 2). The majority of the paleocurrent measurements were taken from scour and fill channels along with imbricate pebbles and cobbles.

Clast counts were made at numerous locations within the Mint Canyon Formation. A few representative ones are shown in Fig. 2. Clasts in the northern and southern margins of the formation consist predominantly of locally derived basement rock types, while clasts in the central part are dominantly of volcanic origin. The area shown in heavy pattern contains greater than 75 percent volcanic clasts, and much of this area contains over 90 percent volcanic clasts imbedded in a volcanoclastic matrix. The volcanic clasts are as much as 3 feet in diameter and are angular to subrounded. Although a small fraction of the Mint Canyon clasts appear to have come from the nearby Vasquez volcanics, most are foreign to the area and must have been derived from east of the San Andreas fault.

Included among the wide variety of volcanic clast types is a unique rapakivi-textured quartz latite porphyry; this rarely exceeds 5 percent of the total clasts.

We interpret the volcanic conglomerate to have been deposited along the axis of a broad alluvial wash. A modern analogy might be Salton Wash between the Orocopia and Chocolate Mountains.

The source areas of locally derived conglomerates place constraints on where the alluvial wash crossed the San Andreas fault. South of the volcanic conglomerate

Lowe Granodiorite is the dominant clast type. The biotite-bearing facies of Granodiorite is particularly abundant. The occurrence of biotite-bearing Lowe Granodiorite basement is restricted to the northwestern San Gabriel Mountains just east of Soledad Pass. The main alluvial wash could not have crossed the San Andreas much further east than the position of Soledad Pass. Anorthositic clasts are also common in the southern area but are generally only a fourth to fifth as abundant as Lowe Granodiorite. This suggests that the anorthosite terrane of the western San Gabriel Mountains is either largely buried beneath an alluvial cover or was an area of very low relief. Volcanic clasts occur in the southern region but are much less abundant than in the central region and include a high proportion of volcanic types derived from the Vasquez Formation. Vasquez volcanics are basement rocks in the Soledad Pass area today and probably capped basement rocks in a part of the western San Gabriel Mountains during the Miocene.

Clasts along the northern margin of the Mint Canyon Formation are generally siliceous and consist of rock types exposed at a short distance to the north and northeast. Clasts from the syenite and blue-quartz granite exposed along the west side of Soledad Pass occur scattered among volcanic clasts in the northeastern part of the volcanic conglomerate. West of Mint Canyon, clasts of Pelona Schist are abundant near the base of the formation and locally form beds of monolithologic breccia. Pelona Schist underlies Sierra Pelona to the north of the Soledad Basin and the base of the Mint Canyon Formation rests directly upon Pelona Schist between Bouquet and San Francisquito Canyon. West of Bouquet Canyon there are abundant clasts of brown sandstone and reworked pebbles and cobbles from the Paleocene Francisquito Formation which crops out west of Sierra Pelona. Thus, the distribution of locally derived clasts requires the alluvial wash to have crossed the San Andreas fault in the general vicinity of Soledad Pass.

lake deposits consisting of interbedded sandstone, siltstone and claystone that make up the northwestern and southern exposures of the Mint Canyon Formation. Tracing of mappable beds indicates that the lake deposits are stratigraphically higher than the volcanic conglomerate. Their occurrence close to the base of the formation in the northern and southern exposures is attributed to onlapping of strata onto the northern margin following deposition of the volcanic conglomerate along the axis of the basin.

CALIENTE FORMATION

The Caliente Formation crops out almost continuously in a northwest-southeast direction from Lockwood Valley to the central part of the Caliente Range, a distance of about 50 miles. Near the southern edge of Lockwood Valley it laps out against older rocks and is overlain by the Lockwood Clay (Carman, 1964, p. 38). In the Caliente Range and to the south of Quatal Valley it grades westward into the Branch Canyon Formation (Hill and others, 1958, p. 2991). Thus, the Caliente Formation was deposited as a broad alluvial fan on a north-northwest trending coastal plain. Regional drainage has been essentially from east to west.

Conglomerate beds within the Caliente Formation of the Lockwood Valley-Quatal area contain clast types strikingly similar to those found in conglomerates of the lower part of the Mint Canyon Formation. The clasts are generally smaller and more rounded than in the Mint Canyon Formation, but the suite of clast types is the same. In most places 50-75 percent of the clasts are of volcanic origin. Included among the volcanic clast types is the unique rapakivi-textured porphyry. Low albite comprises 10-20 percent of the clasts within the southeastern part of the area and is present in lesser amounts in the northwestern part of the area. Amphibolite is widespread but probably does not exceed 10 percent of the clasts at any location. Clasts of Pelona Schist are

common throughout the area and are locally abundant in Quatal Canyon. Other clast types include syenite and blue-quartz granite, brown sandstone - probably reworked from the Paleocene Franciscito Formation, and common types of granitic rock.

GEOLOGY OF THE CHOCOLATE MOUNTAIN SOURCE TERRANE

A mid-tertiary volcanic terrane containing the same hypabyssal and extrusive volcanic rock types as those that occur as clasts in the Mint Canyon Formation, including the rapakivi-textured porphyry, is located 150 miles southeast of the Mint Canyon Formation in the northern Chocolate Mountains, east of the San Andreas fault. Rapakivi-textured rocks occur at several locations within the range but the unique rapakivi-textured quartz latite porphyry found as clasts in the Mint Canyon and Caliente Formations is limited to the northern Chocolate Mountains. A pluton of several square miles consisting of rapakivi-textured quartz monzonite porphyry occurs along the western margin of the range southeast of Salton Wash. The pluton is cut by a myriad of steeply inclined northwest-trending dikes varying from rhyolite to andesite in composition. Northeast of the pluton rapakivi-textured dikes intrude older crystalline rocks. These dikes are probably offshoots of the pluton. The dikes are commonly ten to twenty feet thick, steeply inclined, and north to northwest trending. Red colored rapakivi-textured extrusive rocks have not been found in place but occur in alluvial terraces along the northern edge of the Chocolate Mountains.

Other types of volcanic rocks in this area include andesitic to rhyolitic dikes in part related to small plutons and intermediate to silicic flows, domes, and ignimbrites that crop out primarily in the eastern part of the range. During the Miocene, the volcanic cover was probably much more extensive than today.

DESCRIPTION OF RAPAKIVI TEXTURED ROCKS

The unique rapakivi-textured rocks which occur in outcrop within the northern Chocolate Mountains and as clasts in the Caliente and Mint Canyon Formations are characterized by numerous phenocrysts of conspicuously mantled feldspar. The rocks fall into three groups: (1) light-colored quartz monzonite porphyry typical of the pluton in the northwesternmost Chocolate Mountains; (2) quartz latite porphyry with light-colored feldspar phenocrysts in a dark gray fine-grained to aphanitic groundmass typical of the dike rocks, and (3) red quartz latite porphyry of probable extrusive origin.

The most distinctive type is the dike rock in which feldspar phenocrysts constitute about a third of the rock and form stout single crystals and nearly equant glomeroporphyritic masses. The phenocrysts are generally 5 to 10 mm wide with some attaining 20 mm. The pinkish potash feldspar phenocrysts are typically mantled by a white rim of oligoclase about 1 mm wide with a few crystals containing andesine cores. Composite phenocrysts contain potash feldspar and plagioclase phenocrysts snowballed together and surrounded by a mantle of oligoclase. Some plagioclase phenocrysts contain abundant inclusions of biotite and show a complex growth history of zoning and resorption. In some of the rocks plagioclase is mantled by potash feldspar. Clots of fine-grained plagioclase, biotite, and hornblende are dispersed through most rocks. Some clots are partially rimmed by oligoclase. The dikes also contain small phenocrysts of quartz, biotite and hornblende. The matrix is composed of very fine-grained quartz, feldspar and biotite. Granophyric and myrmekitic intergrowths are common. Reddish brown allanite is a minor accessory. Chemical analyses of six samples of this type of rock are shown in Table I (analyses CH-1, CH-2, MT-1, MT-2, CA-1 and CA-2). Dike rocks containing sparse phenocrysts also occur but are less abundant than the type described above. One sample from each area has been chemically analyzed (CH-3, MT-3, CA-3).

The rapakivi-textured quartz monzonite porphyry is similar to the dike rocks described above except for a coarser grained matrix. Feldspar phenocrysts the same size as in the dike rocks, generally constitute 10 to 20 percent the rock. Biotite is oxidized to hematite. Some specimens contain small irregularly shaped gas cavities. The single chemical analysis of this type of rock (MT-5 in Table I) indicates less SiO_2 and more Al_2O_3 than in the other rocks analyzed. This appears to be due to kaolinization of feldspar in the matrix.

OTHER VOLCANIC ROCKS

In addition to rapakivi-textured rocks, exotic clasts within the Caliente and Mint Canyon Formation include minor olivine basalt and mafic andesite, abundant intermediate flow-rock varieties ranging from porphyritic pyroxene andesite to hornblende dacite, abundant flow-banded dacite to rhyolite, and biotite-sandstone rhyolite. All of these rock types occur in the Chocolate Mountains. Some are present as hypabyssal intrusions within the range and the others occur in lava flows, domes and pyroclastic deposits along the northeastern flank of the range.

DISCUSSION

Rapakivi-textured clasts in the Mint Canyon and Caliente Formations are so unique and so similar to rocks in the northern Chocolate Mountains as to leave no doubt that the Chocolate Mountains are their source. These rocks are unique due to a combination of coexisting features including abundance, size and shape of feldspar phenocrysts; the presence of mantled feldspars; other textural features and variations in textures, and the presence of allanite as a minor accessory. The suite of volcanic clasts in which the rapakivi-textured rocks occur matches volcanic rocks within the Chocolate Mountains but is different from assemblages found in other volcanic terranes in southern California.

TABLE 1. CHEMICAL ANALYSES OF RAPAKIVI TEXTURED ROCKS

	(wt %)												
	CH-1	CH-2	CH-3	CH-4	CH-5	MT-1	MT-2	MT-3	MT-4	MT-5	CA-1	CA-2	CA-3
02	69.29	67.11	69.87	71.08	75.28	70.05	69.22	69.19	68.42	68.01	71.87	70.43	72.25
03	14.65	15.76	14.94	15.30	13.66	14.36	14.54	15.88	15.49	17.51	14.55	14.58	13.89
03	3.71	4.35	3.09	1.95	0.11	3.45	3.13	2.97	3.94	2.80	2.20	2.88	2.68
0	0.58	0.65	0.89	0.37	0.11	0.59	0.47	0.77	0.50	0.37	0.41	0.47	0.49
0	1.06	1.31	1.52	1.04	0.63	1.19	1.18	1.50	1.02	1.33	1.02	0.89	1.01
0	4.16	4.18	4.24	4.04	4.05	4.12	4.27	4.30	3.98	3.87	4.01	3.91	3.83
0	4.23	4.05	3.23	4.42	4.61	4.26	4.31	3.92	4.12	3.74	4.25	4.18	4.42
02	0.51	0.51	0.50	0.42	0.37	0.51	0.50	0.51	0.48	0.52	0.49	0.51	0.47
05	0.10	0.14	0.09	0.12	0.11	0.10	0.10	0.13	0.11	0.11	0.13	0.09	0.11
0	0.08	0.09	0.08	0.05	0.05	0.08	0.06	0.08	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.06	0.05
	(ppm)												
	170	130	119	170	184	161	164	114	178	125	184	172	190
	159	119	160	160	144	120	143	221	119	241	195	91	119

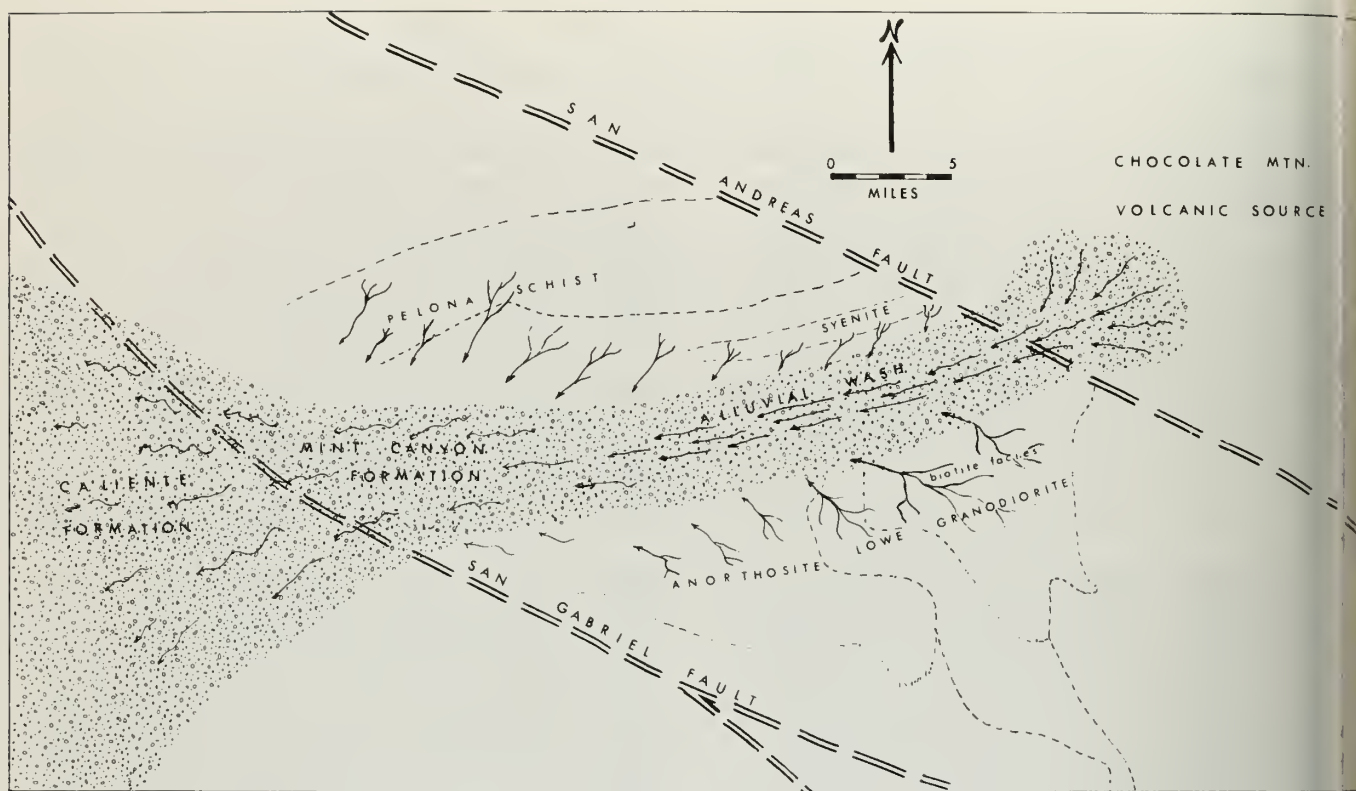


Figure 3.

Postulated drainage pattern during deposition of lower part of Mint Canyon and Caliente Formation before movement began along San Andreas and San Gabriel faults

The Mint Canyon Formation must have been deposited in close proximity to the Chocolate Mountains as inferred from the angularity of volcanic clasts and the absence of clasts from source areas other than the Chocolate Mountains and the region around Soledad Basin. Paleocurrent data and the distribution of locally derived clasts, particularly Low Granodiorite, indicate the Mint Canyon Formation was deposited in a westward draining trough which crossed the San Andreas fault in the vicinity of Soledad Pass. A minimum offset reconstruction would place Soledad Pass approximately opposite the mouth of Salton Wash during deposition of the Mint Canyon Formation and would require about 150 miles of right slip along the San Andreas fault since deposition of the Mint Canyon Formation.

The Caliente Formation of the Lockwood Valley - Quatal Canyon area has the same clast assemblage as the Mint Canyon Formation, including clasts derived from pre-Miocene rocks on both sides of the Soledad Basin and volcanic clasts from Chocolate Mountains. Since the two formations are the same age and contain the same clast suite, they must have been deposited in the same trough and subsequently have been separated by right slip along the San Gabriel fault. A reasonable reconstruction indicates 3 to 40 miles of offset.

The above offsets are the same as derived from correlation of basement across the San Gabriel and San Andreas faults (Crowell, this vol.) and thus indicate faulting commenced after deposition of at least the lower half of the Mint Canyon Formation and most of the

iente Formation. Carman (1964, p. 42- notes that the upper part of the iente Formation is of local origin and have been deposited after the San riel fault began to move. The exten- e lake deposits within the upper half the Mint Canyon Formation were probably med after the Caliente Formation was off from the Soledad Basin. The lower of the Mint Canyon Formation contains arstovian fauna and the upper part cons- ns a Clarendonian fauna (Durham and ers, 1954, p. 66-67). The Caliente about the same age range (James, 1963). relations by Turner (1970, p. 112) place Barstovian - Clarendonian boundary at to 13 my. This is a maximum age for San Gabriel fault and is probably close its true age since marine rocks of nian age are offset only about 20 miles owell, 1952). Turner (1970) believes Mohnian stage occurred about 10 to 12 ago. The southern part of the San reas fault is probably younger than the Gabriel fault but how much younger is nown.

The offsets described above indicate a al displacement of 185-190 miles of ht slip along the southern half of the Andreas fault system within the past my.

KNOWLEDGMENTS

We appreciate critical review of this er by Sean Carey and Robert Meade.

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BRINGING THE SAN ANDREAS FAULT INTO THE CLASSROOM

John S. Shelton
P. O. Box 48
La Jolla, California 92037

PRODUCTION

One of the principal difficulties in bringing students to understand the San Andreas fault stems from the sheer size of the feature itself. Individual sites which are miles apart and even a day field trip will leave many students confused as to the big picture; they lack the background and perspective in which each detail becomes an exciting enrichment of the whole concept.

One way to meet this problem is to supplement the field trips with visual aids to bring the fault into the classroom. A step in that direction the material that follows is a preliminary assemblage of films, slides, photographs and non-technical printed material dealing with the San Andreas fault. All items listed have been recommended by California geologists and are considered suitable for use at junior high school, high school and college levels, but the author's familiarity with the materials is very uneven.

16 mm, color, sound)

The San Andreas Fault (21 minutes)

The fault trace as seen from the air on the ground; its effect on landscape and rocks; model demonstrating stick-slip and elastic rebound; evidence for cumulative displacement; association with earthquakes; monitoring instrumentation.

Produced by: Encyclopaedia Britannica Educational Corporation; catalog number 3304.

Purchase from: EBEC, 425 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago, Ill. 60611. Price: \$255.00

Rent from: EBEC, 2494 Teagarden Street, San Leandro, Calif. 94577 Fee:

\$11.00 plus shipping, for 1 to 3 days.

San Francisco: The City That Waits To Die (57 minutes)

A dramatic film that emphasizes earthquake hazards along the San Andreas fault, methods of coping with them, and the complacency of citizens and local government.

Produced by: BBC.

Rent from: Time-Life Films, 100 Eisenhower Drive, Paramus, N. J. 17652. Fee: \$50.00 plus shipping for 2 days.

Earthquake I -- The Land (20 minutes) Earthquake II -- The People (20 mins.)

These two films are based upon a TV program aired in February 1972 and narrated by Jules Bergman which examined the San Andreas Fault from south to north with the able assistance of Clarence Allen and other local experts.

Produced by: ABC TV.

Purchase from: Xerox Films, 245 Long Hill Road, Middletown, Conn. 06457. Price: \$280.00. No rental.

The Earthquake Observatory (23 minutes)

How seismographs work; methods of locating earthquakes along the San Andreas fault and elsewhere.

Produced by: Prof. Bruce A. Bolt and colleagues, Univ. Calif. at Berkeley.

Available from: Director, Seismographic Station, University of California, Berkeley, Calif. 94720. Purchase: \$312.00. Rental: \$35.00 per day.

PHOTOGRAPHS AND SLIDES

Earth Resources Technology Satellite (ERTS) Images

A browse file (on microfilm) of these images is available for study at the U. S. Geological Survey, Topographic Branch, Building 3, 345 Middlefield Road, Menlo Park, Calif. 94025. Instructions for ordering prints may also be obtained here.

U-2 Photographs

High altitude verticals and obliques, in black-and-white, natural color, and infra-red color covering coastal belts and other sections of the U.S. Approximately 185,000 pictures on file. To make use of these send exact geographic coordinates of subject area to Earth Resources Aircraft Project, Ames Research Center, Mail Stop 211-12, Moffett Field, Calif. 94035, or call (415) 965-6252. Computer will print out (free) full information on all available photos of the area (date, kind of film, scale, etc.). Or, visit Ames Research Center and use their microfilm browse file. The selected photos may be ordered, on special forms provided for the purpose, from Sioux Falls, S.D. Cost depends on size etc.

U. S. Geological Survey Photographs

Copy negatives of many of G. K. Gilbert's photographs, most of the Branner collection, and original black-and-white and color photography by currently active geologists (including much of Robert Wallace's collection) are on file at the Photo Library of the U. S. Geological Survey, 345 Middlefield Road, Menlo Park Calif. 94025; telephone (415) 323-8111. Descriptions of available material on request.

California Division of Mines and Geology Photographs

Over 5,000 black-and-white photographs and some color slides of California geology and mining are on file in Sacramento. The black-and-whites are numbered, cross-referenced by subject, and filed in note-

books. The transparencies are cataloged by subject. Browsing by appointment only. For further information contact: California Division of Mines and Geology, Geologic Data Group, 1416 Ninth Street, Room 1341, Sacramento, Calif. 95814. Telephone: (916) 445-0404.

Slide Set

Set of forty 35 mm slides entitled "Surface Features of the San Andreas Fault" includes views from U-2 flights, aerial obliques, and ground shots, with accompanying illustrated text. Produced by: Pilot Rock, Inc., 1551 G St., Arcata, Calif. 95521. Distributed by: Geopac, Tualatin, Ore. 97062. Price: \$48.50 per set.

Shelton Photographs

Many views of the San Andreas fault (and other geologic features in the West). Mostly low aerial obliques, but also many ground shots. Black-and-white and color. Available from: John S. Shelton, P. O. Box 48, La Jolla, Calif. 92037.

NON-TECHNICAL PRINTED MATERIALS

Earthquake Country, by Robert Iaccolini. (Lane Book Co., Menlo Park, Calif. 1967; 2nd ed. 1971.) Good popular account of the relation between faults and earthquakes in California. Maps, photos and descriptions of San Andreas fault trace from Imperial Valley to Point Arena--a helpful guide to finding the fault from California roads and highways.

The Earth Shook, the Sky Burned, by William Bronson. (Doubleday and Co., Garden City, N. Y., 1959). Notable for reproduction of over 400 on-the-scene photographs assembled from many historical collections and documenting nearly all aspects of the San Francisco earthquake and fire of April 1906. Text includes quotations from contemporaneous publications and eye-witnesses.

Peace of Mind in Earthquake Country, by Peter Yanev. (Chronicle Publishing Co., San Francisco, Calif. 1974.) A structural engineer looks at living with

chquake hazards.

Remember, too, that both the U. S. Geological Survey and the California Division of Mines and Geology, whose addresses have been given above, print a variety of pamphlets and information sheets, some free and some at nominal cost, that deal with the San Andreas Fault and California earthquakes. Many authoritative articles addressed to non-technical readers have also appeared in the monthly publication California Geology (formerly "Mineral Information Service") issued by the California Division of Mines and Geology, and in the Scientific American.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author is indebted to many geologists who responded to his plea for suggestions of material to include in this bibliography. He would also welcome word from those who find significant omissions here.

Reviewed by John C. Crowell.

SECTION 2

Mexico to Cajon Pass



- to 2. Trace of Banning fault (south branch of San Andreas fault), starting in center foreground and crossing Whitewater Canyon, southern San Bernardino Mountains. Looking west. Note the vegetation in the canyon where the faulting has apparently brought subsurface water closer to the surface. J. S. Shelton Photograph No. 6835, 24 Nov. 1974, 6500 ft. elevation.



Photo 3. San Andreas fault zone, northeast of San Bernardino, looking northwest. Note trace of fault from mountain-facing scarp in foreground, along base of range through new housing development in the center of photograph, and toward Cajon Pass in the distance. Several branches of the fault form prominent lineaments in the foothills. State Highway 30 between Highland and Running Springs in canyon of right foreground. "See photo page 145" J. S. Shelton Photograph No. 6846, 24 Nov. 1974, 8500 ft. elevation.

GEOLOGIC SKETCH OF THE OROCOPIA MOUNTAINS, SOUTHEASTERN CALIFORNIA

John C. Crowell
Geological Sciences Department
University of California
Santa Barbara, California 93106

ABSTRACT

The Orocopia Mountains lie adjacent to the San Andreas fault to the northeast of the Salton Sea. Metamorphic rocks within them include Precambrian augen gneiss, migmatite, orthogneiss, anorthosite-syenite complex, and Mesozoic granodiorite, quartz monzonite, and quartz diorite. The core of the range consists of an Orocopia Schist (Mesozoic?) that structurally underlies the folded Orocopia thrust. On the northeast, at 1460 m (4800 ft) of marine Eocene and middle Eocene beds, comprising the Maniobra Formation, lie remnants of a rugged Eocene shoreline. These beds are overlain unconformably by about 1500 m (5000 ft) of marine Diligencia Formation, mostly of early Miocene age. In the Mecca Hills to the west about 1500 m (5000 ft) of nonmarine sandstone, siltstone, and conglomerate constitute the Mecca and Palm Springs formations of Plio-Pleistocene age. The youngest sedimentary rocks include the Pleistocene Sycamore Formation, a conglomerate that extends basinward toward the northwest. Volcanic rocks, primarily of middle and late Tertiary age, are of several petrographic types and ages.

The structural evolution of the Orocopia Mountains region began with Precambrian metamorphic and intrusive events involving Precambrian and Mesozoic rocks. Many of these rocks constitute the fold-overriding plate of the Orocopia thrust, a major regional overthrust of unknown displacement and probably of late Mesozoic or earliest Cenozoic age. The unconformably over-

lying Cenozoic sedimentary section is irregularly deformed. Near major faults, such as the San Andreas, even Pleistocene beds are strongly faulted and folded. Major associated faults of the San Andreas system are the Painted Canyon, Eagle Canyon, Hidden Springs, and Clemens Well. On the east, folds with an east-southeast trend in strata of the Maniobra and Diligencia formations are associated with a system of vertical strike-slip faults; north-east striking faults have left slips and northwest striking ones, right slips.

INTRODUCTION

The Salton Trough is flanked on the northeast by the Orocopia Mountains and to the east by the Chocolate Mountains, two rugged desert ranges nearly barren of vegetation (Fig. 1). The Orocopia Mountains, lying between the Salton Sea and Salton Creek Wash on the south, and Interstate Highway 10 on the north, are fully accessible, but the Chocolate Mountains are part of the U.S. Naval Aerial Gunnery Range and are closed to public access. The Orocopia Mountains and their foothills on the west, the Mecca Hills, constitute the southeasternmost region covered in this guidebook. The region contains rock units of significance in understanding the displacement history of the San Andreas fault, as do the Chocolate Mountains further southeastward, because they are probably offset from correlated units in the Soledad and Tejon regions to the northwest (Crowell, 1962). Only very recently, however, has geologic

information from the Chocolate Mountains become available (Haxel and Dillon, 1973; Crowe, 1973; Haxel, 1974; Dillon and Haxel, 1975).

Early information on the geology of the Orocopia Mountains is found in papers by Mendenhall (1909), Brown (1923), Darton (1933), and Miller (1944). Dibblee (1954) mapped part of the region and applied several of the stratigraphic names now employed. Later published work includes that of Crowell (1957, 1960, 1962, 1973, 1974), Cole (1958), Crowell and Susuki (1959), Crowell and Walker (1962), Silver (1966, 1968, 1971), Ehlig (1968), Ehlig and Ehler (1972), Armstrong and Suppe (1973), Woodburne and Whistler (1973), Spittler and Arthur (1973), and Spittler (1974).

The western part of the Orocopia Mountains, including the Mecca Hills, can be reached easily by hikes from conventional automobiles. Especially worthwhile are visits to view the rocks and structure 1) in the Painted Canyon area (Sylvester and Smith, this volume), 2) along Box Canyon (through which passes State Highway 195), 3) in the vicinity of Shaver Well, 4) in the Hidden Spring - Grotto region. The latter area is reached by trail from Box Canyon by way of Sheep Hole Oasis (see U.S.G.S. Mortmar Quadrangle). The northern flank of the Orocopia Mountains is accessible from several dirt roads leading up washes from Highway 195 and Interstate 10. Some of the most significant and scenic geology occurs in the eastern Orocopia Mountains, reached from the Coachella Canal road by way of rough and unimproved roads, sandy at places, along Salton Creek Wash. Here spectacular exposures of colorful sedimentary and volcanic rocks of the Diligencia Formation, deeply eroded into rugged canyons, are found in the vicinity of Canyon Spring and Red Canyon (U.S.G.S. Hayfield Quadrangle).

The rocks exposed within the Orocopia Mountains range in age from Precambrian to Recent, and here described under three headings: 1) Basement rocks, including several types of gneiss, plutonic rocks of several sorts and ages, and schist, 2) Tertiary sedimentary rocks, including marine Eocene strata, Oligocene-Miocene nonmarine beds with associated volcanic rocks and younger sandstone and conglomerate, mainly of Plio-Pleistocene and Recent ages, and 3) other volcanic rocks.

The structural history of the Orocopia Mountains is complex, involving deformation during the Precambrian and at several times during the Mesozoic. Major overthrusting on the Orocopia thrust, took place in the late Mesozoic (?) and brought older metamorphic and granitic rocks above schist. Faulting and folding has occurred at intervals in the Cenozoic, and deformation is taking place today along strands of the Andreas fault system.

BASEMENT ROCKS

Augen Gneiss and Migmatite

The oldest rocks so far recognized within the Orocopia Mountains are augen gneisses and migmatites exposed in the southeast near Salton Creek Wash, and north of the Clemens Well fault (Fig. 1), and are part of the Chuckwalla Complex (Miller, 1944). Characteristic of the unit are large, up to 8 cm, ovoid "eyes" of pink microcline within coarse-grained microfolded gneiss. The migmatite constitutes about 20 per cent of the augen-gneiss terrain and consists of intermixtures between impure feldspathic and quartz-rich gneiss, gneissic granite, and biotite schist. The augen gneiss has yielded a zircon age of 1670 ± 15 m.y. (Silver, 1971).

Figure 1. Geologic sketch map of the Orocopia Mountains, southeastern California. Subscript numbers serve to differentiate different rock units of similar types; see text of this paper and that of Crowell (1962). With reference to insert rectangle at lower left, the data are modified and simplified from unpublished mapping by Hays (WH) (1957), Ware (GS) (1958), and Crowell (JC). A-A' = Line of cross section of Figure 2. Precambrian rocks: gn = blue-quartz gneiss, ag = augen gneiss and migmatite, a = anorthosite, di = diorite, gb = gabbro, sy = syenite. Other pre-Tertiary basement rocks: gr = granitic rocks (several types), s = Orocopia Schist. Cenozoic rocks: v = volcanic rocks (several types), E = Eocene Maniobra Formation, ØMd = Oligocene - Lower Miocene Diligencia Formation, PQ = Plio-Pleistocene formations, Qt = Quaternary terrace and fanglomerate deposits, Qal = Quaternary alluvium and lake-bed deposits.

Blue-Quartz Gneiss and Gray Gneiss

Patches of gneiss crop out south and west of the Clemens Well fault, confined to the overriding plate of the Orocopia thrust, and also within hills flanking Maniobra Valley (Fig. 1). Banded gneiss, with an amphibolite-facies mineralogy, is intruded by rocks of the anorthosite-syenite group, and is characterized by quartz grains with a distinctive blue or violet color, and textures suggesting an earlier granulite-facies metamorphism. This gneiss has been dated at about 1425 m.y. by Silver (1971). Other areas of amphibolite-facies gneiss with gray quartz may or may not be of the same age. At places such gneiss occurs as isolated bodies or septa within Mesozoic (?) granitic plutons, and may therefore be younger than the definitely Precambrian

gneiss. Blue-quartz gneiss is best exposed on the north flank of the Orocopia Mountains, and gray gneiss in deep gorges tributary to Painted Canyon, in the Hayfield Mountain and in hills southwest of Maniobra Valley (Fig. 1).

Anorthosite-Syenite Complex

Irregular masses of rock belonging to an anorthosite group and closely associated with those belonging to a syenite group crop out in the overriding plate of the Orocopia thrust (Fig. 1) (Crowell and Walker, 1962). These complicated, deformed, and shattered rocks are especially well exposed north of the Salton Creek Wash and along ridges just north of the crest of the Orocopia Mountains. A few small outcrops of anorthosite and related rocks crop out in Painted Canyon and are the most easily visited exposures of these types in the region (Sylvester and Smith, this volume). The anorthosite group consists of gabbro, diorite, transitional rock between gabbro and diorite, transitional between gabbro and anorthosite, white anorthosite, mafic bodies, and basic dikes (Crowell and Walker, 1962). The plagioclase of the anorthosite is oligoclase-andesine (An₂₈₋₄₅). It is closely associated syenite group consists of syenite, quartz-bearing syenite, alkali granite, granophyre, and pegmatite. Blue or violet quartz, microperthite, and replacement textures of biotite after original mafic minerals are characteristic. Because the anorthosite and syenite groups are intimately associated, they are probably related in origin. Their isotopic age is about 1220 m.y. (Silver, 1971) in origin.

Low (?) Granodiorite

Porphyritic granodiorite occurs in a few small outcrops just south of the mapped area near A of the

ss-section line (Fig. 1, A-A') within the northern Chocolate Mountains. The rock is medium-to coarse-grained and faintly foliated, with characteristic large orthoclase megacrysts and smaller and irregularly distributed hornblende phenocrysts. Quartz constitutes less than 10 per cent. On the basis of morphologic similarity this granobrite is tentatively correlated with the Lowe Granodiorite of the Gabriel Mountains which has been dated at 220 ± 10 m.y. (earliest Cretaceous) by Silver (1971). Similar rock has recently been discovered by John Dillon in the south-central Chocolate Mountains, near Mammoth Wash (personal comun., 1974).

Granitic Rocks

Light-colored granitic rocks include the gneisses and rocks of the orthosite-syenite complex in the Orocopia thrust-plate. The main granitic rock is a fine-to medium-grained leuco-quartz monzonite with complicated migmatitic borders. In fact, there are several involved contacts of "double migmatites" where the migmatitic borders of the orthosite-syenite complex and adjacent gneisses are cross-cut and metamorphosed by quartz monzonite. The monzonite and quartz monzonite also underlie the Hayfield Mountains. These rocks, as well as those of the Chuckwalla and Little Chuckwalla Mountains to the east, have yielded ages between 71 and 88 m.y. (Armstrong and Suppe, 1973), suggesting that cooling, perhaps the result of uplift and deep erosion, took place during late Cretaceous time. Within the Orocopia Mountains it is not yet known how many different granitic plutons are present, nor how diverse their ages. These granitic rocks on the north do not constitute the basement floor on which the marine Eocene strata of the Maniobra Formation were deposited.

Orocopia Schist

The central part of the Orocopia Mountains is underlain by a 2000 m (6500 ft) sequence of greenschist-facies schist reconstituted metamorphically from graywacke and mudstone, with minor amounts of chert and basic volcanic rocks. The bedded schist, predominately gray in color, is mainly composed of quartz, albite, and muscovite with minor amounts of chlorite, epidote, actinolite, and graphite. Lithologic layering, derived from sedimentary bedding, is conspicuous in almost all outcrops, but scattered isoclinal-fold hinges suggest that some of the original bedding is transposed. Although the age and environment of deposition of the original sediments and volcanics now constituting the schist are unknown, it is noteworthy that none of the granitic plutons intrude the schist, and that nowhere are rocks visible beneath the schist. These relations suggest that perhaps the strata are younger than plutonism and metamorphism, or that they were deposited on oceanic-or quasi-oceanic floor so that no sialic sources for quartz monzonite plutons lay beneath them. The age of the metamorphism of the Orocopia Schist is also unknown, but is probably Mesozoic by comparison with events involving the very similar Pelona Schist in the San Gabriel Mountains (Ehlig, 1968). The foliation of the schist in the Orocopia Mountains has been broadly folded after the emplacement of the overriding Orocopia thrust; in this regard also it is similar to the Pelona Schist and its overlying Vincent thrust. In the absence of detailed studies of the Orocopia Schist, and by relying heavily on regional correlations, I tentatively consider the age of the original strata as Mesozoic (undesignated more precisely) and the age of the metamorphism as late Cretaceous. The schist probably correlative with the

the Orocopia Schist also occurs from the central Chocolate Mountains southeastward into central Yuma County, Arizona.

CENOZOIC STRATA

Eocene Maniobra Formation

The oldest unmetamorphosed sedimentary rocks in the Orocopia Mountains consist of about 1460 m (4800 ft) of Eocene beds containing marine fossils and assigned to the Maniobra Formation (Crowell and Susuki, 1959). These brown shales, sandstones, conglomerates, and sedimentary breccias lie unconformably upon granitic basement in Maniobra Valley (Fig. 1). Coarse rocks were deposited along an ancient Eocene shoreline, or steep near-shore buttress unconformity, which is preserved along the southern base of the Hayfield Mountains. Here huge polished boulders and giant blocks have apparently tumbled from shoreline cliffs and ancient sea stacks. From this near-shore area the beds thicken and become finer grained toward the south and southwest, suggesting that the open sea, or at least a broad marine embayment, lay in that direction. The fauna, consisting of Foraminifera (including Discocyclinids), gastropods, and pelecypods, indicates an early and middle Eocene age (Cole, 1958; Crowell and Susuki, 1959; Johnston, 1961). These fossils, as well as the lithology of beds containing them, show many affinities with those of the north-central Transverse Ranges, across the San Andreas fault and between 220 and 280 km (135 to 175 mi) to the northwest (Kirkpatrick, 1958; Crowell and Susuki, 1959; Howell, this volume).

Oligocene - Lower Miocene Diligencia Formation

The Diligencia Formation, consisting of about 1500 m (nearly

5000 ft) of nonmarine conglomerate, sandstone, mudstone, and interbedded volcanic flows and sills, underlies a large region in the eastern Orocopia Mountains. The formation lies unconformably upon the Eocene Maniobra Formation on the north where it is characterized by a basal conglomerate largely composed of rounded granitic cobbles. On the south, the formation lies unconformably upon augen gneiss and migmatite one kilometer southeast of Canyon Spring (U.S.G.S. Hayfield Quadrangle).

Lithologically the formation consists of red sandstone and maroon mudstone with lesser thicknesses of well bedded calcareous yellow sandstone, dark gray limestone, thin bedded sequences of gypsum and ore evaporites, and irregular lenses of sedimentary breccia including molasse lithologic mosaic breccias of granitic and gneissic debris. Facies changes are pronounced within the unit, and tentative interpretations indicate that it was deposited in an intermontane valley with roughly east-west orientation. The valley was at times occupied by a lake, which occasionally dried up so that evaporites were laid down. Coarse debris entered the valley from both the north and the southwest, as shown by facies changes and paleocurrent indicators. The volcanic rocks consist of dark purplish-brown vesicular basalt flows, and pilotaxitic andesitic dikes and and greenish tuff beds up to 60 m (2 ft) thick (Crowell, 1962; Spittler and Arthur, 1973; Spittler, 1974).

The formation is here named formally Diligencia, a Spanish word for stagecoach. Canyon Spring was a watering place for horses on the Butterfield Stage Route between Mecca and Ehrenberg in the late 1860's (Brown, 1923, p. 6). Until a few years ago the foundation of

ge house still remained on the
ks of Salton Creek Wash northeast
m the mouth of Canyon Spring Can-
. The type section for the Dili-
cia Formation is here designated
include the beds along a north-
th cross section from the uncon-
mity with augen gneiss at the
e, beginning at a point 850 m
00 ft) S 75°E from Canyon Spring
shown on U.S.G.S. Hayfield Quad-
gle (in the northern part of Sec.
T. 7 S., R. 13 E.). It is in-
ded that the formation include
only the beds along this north-
th cross section, but those to
east and west as well. Com-
x structure, intermixed irregular
canic masses, and marked facies
nges within the sedimentary stra-
preclude the establishment of a
aight-forward stratigraphic col-
at present. No younger and dis-
ct formations are known to over-
the Diligencia Formation in its
ion of outcrop except for local
ternary fan, terrace, and allu-
l deposits.

The age of the Diligencia Forma-
n depends on its stratigraphic
ition, a single vertebrate-fos-
find, and three K-Ar isotopic
es from interbedded volcanic
ks, one of which is unsuitable
to large analytical uncertain-
s. These dates are 22.4 ± 2.9
 20.1 ± 8.9 m.y. (Crowell, 1973,
e 1) and 18.6 ± 1.9 m.y.
ttler, 1974). Recently Wood-
e and Whistler (1973) have des-
ed. oreodont remains from a
ck quite likely fallen from a
dstone bed about 365 m (1200 ft)
ve the base of the section. and
ut 0.8 km (0.5 mi) north of Can-
Spring. Woodburne and Whistler
clude from their comparison of
e vertebrate remains with others
outhern California "that at
t the upper half of the (Dili-
cia Formation) is of late Ari-
ean, or less possibly, early
ngfordian age." From all of this

I tentatively conclude that the
formation is primarily of early
Miocene age but with the lower part
probably extending down into the
Oligocene.

Upper Cenozoic Formations

Nonmarine conglomerate, sand-
stone, siltstone and other minor
lithologies crop out extensively
in the western Orocopia Mountains,
including the Mecca Hills (Dibblee,
1954; Hays, 1957; Ware, 1958; Syl-
vester and Smith, this volume).
Most of these strata were laid down
at the deforming margin of the
Salton Trough as alluvial fans ex-
tending southwestward into playas.
They are severely deformed along
faults of the San Andreas system,
and adjacent to the Hidden Springs
fault zone and at places the beds
are folded isoclinally with steeply
plunging hingelines. These beds
and their attendant structures are
best observed in the Painted Canyon
region (Sylvester and Smith, this
volume), along Box Canyon (Highway
195), and in the Hidden Springs-
Grotto region. On the geologic
sketch map (Fig. 1), these forma-
tions are grouped together and
shown with the symbol PQ (Pliocene
and Quaternary).

Unconformably overlying the
Palm Spring Formation are fanglom-
erates assigned to the Ocotillo
Conglomerate (Fig. 1, Qt₁) (Dibblee,
1954, p. 25; Sylvester and Smith,
this volume). Along the San
Andreas and Hidden Springs fault
zones the Ocotillo Conglomerate is
deformed and at a few places it
dips nearly vertically. Southwest
of the San Andreas fault, and north-
west of Painted Canyon, the con-
glomerate consists of debris of
Orocopia Schist, with current im-
brication and facies relations
showing derivation from the north-
east from a direction now covered

by deposits of the older Palm Spring Formation. Right-slip of the order of 20 km (12 mi) is needed on the fault to offset these exposures of the Ocotillo Conglomerate from their source area in the Orocopia Mountains (Ware, 1958).

The youngest sedimentary units in the region, of late Pleistocene and Recent age, include fan conglomerates, terrace deposits, and alluvium. Bordering the Salton Sea are widespread deposits laid down by Lake Cahuilla, some of which are replete with small gastropods and other shells. This lake occupied the Salton Trough in quite recent times as shown by the remains of Indian camps around its shoreline. Bars, spits, and other shoreline features are today still fresh and easily recognized near the present sea-level contour.

VOLCANIC ROCKS

In addition to the basalts and andesites of the Diligencia Formation, several other volcanic rocks are exposed within the Orocopia region. These include felsite dikes which have tentative K-Ar dates of about 24 m.y. (Sylvester and Smith, this volume). The dikes of several types range in composition from pyroxene andesite to sanidine rhyolite and include a rapakivi-textured quartz latite porphyry in terrain south of Salton Creek Wash. Several rhyodacitic to rhyolitic domes crop out along the Salton Creek fault (Fig. 1, v₄). The quartz latite porphyry also occurs in the Painted Canyon area. Debris identical to this distinctive rock has been found in Soledad Basin (Ehlig and Ehlert, 1972). These and other volcanic rocks in the region are now under study by Crowe (1973; see also, Ehlig and others, this volume).

STRUCTURE

Deformational events recorded in the Orocopia Mountains include those associated with the multiple intrusion and metamorphism of the Precambrian and Mesozoic basement rocks, those associated with the placement of the Orocopia thrust and include several intervals of complex folding and faulting during the Cenozoic (Fig. 2).

Orocopia Thrust

Basement rocks lie in thrust contact upon Orocopia Schist along the northeastern slope of the Orocopia Mountains. Here gouge zones and fault slices accompanied by local lenses of mylonite and blastomylonite, suggest that major deep-seated thrusting was followed later by shallow reactivation. The thrust probably took place in late Cretaceous or early Paleocene time because granitic plutons of these presumed ages (based on regional relations) are confined to the upper plate and are truncated below by the thrust. Rare minor folds in the metamorphic rocks both above and below the thrust have not yet been studied sufficiently to determine the movement direction. Since thrusting, the Orocopia thrust has been broadly folded; the underlying Orocopia Schist has apparently adjusted to this folding by flexural slip along foliation surfaces. The northwest-trending crest of the Orocopia Mountains, for example, is antiformal through the region where the Orocopia thrust has been breached by erosion. Rocks characteristic of both the upper plate and the underlying schist crop out in dispersed outcrops beneath Cenozoic sedimentary rocks throughout the Mecca Hills. It is therefore concluded that in this region the

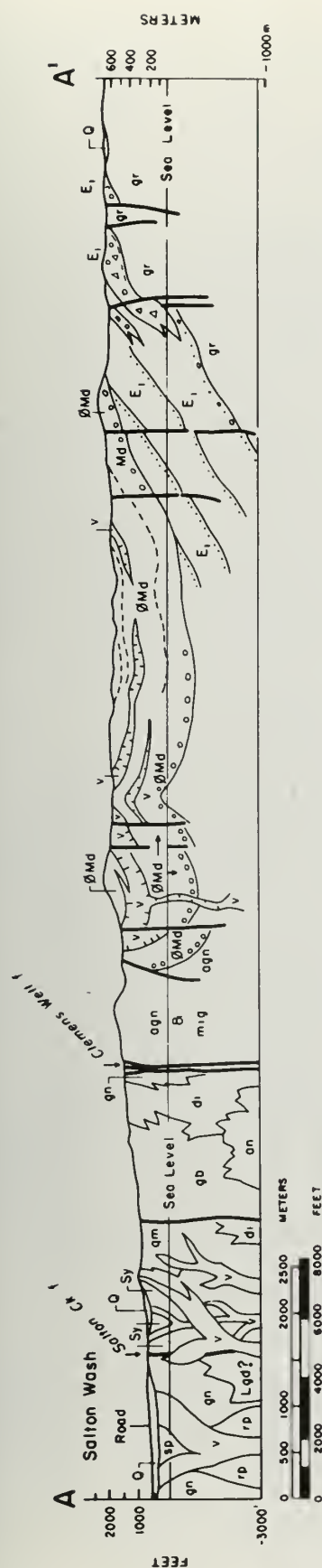


Figure 2. Simplified geologic cross section along line A-A' of Figure 1.

thrust lies beneath the gneisses and related rocks, and separates these from the underlying schist. Later faulting and folding during the Cenozoic have broken up and deformed the thrust plate; the plate was still later breached by erosion before deposition of the upper Cenozoic formations. The schist exposures represent places where the overriding plate was eroded away before these sediments were deposited.

Within the Orocochia region, the Orocochia thrust can be recognized in the sector between the San Andreas fault on the southwest and the Clemens Well fault on the northeast. The thrust has many similarities with the Vincent thrust in the San Gabriel Mountains (Ehlig, 1958, 1968), with the Chocolate Mountain thrust in southeasternmost California (Haxel and Dillon, 1973; Dillon and Haxel, 1975), and has some similarities with the Mule Mountain thrust about 130 km (80 mi) to the east (Pelka, 1973). A major tectonic problem in southern California is to work out the timings and correlations between these major movement zones (Crowell, 1974).

Faults of the San Andreas System

In addition to the San Andreas fault itself, which is well exposed near the mouth of Painted Canyon (Hays, 1957; Ware, 1958; Sylvester and Smith, this volume), several other major vertical fault zones, both active and inactive, trend northwesterly across the Orocochia region (Fig. 1). The Painted Canyon and Eagle Canyon faults are interpreted as abandoned splays of the San Andreas fault itself, and landforms along them due to active

movements today have not been recognized. The Hidden Springs fault, on the other hand, cuts recent alluvium and is active, especially on the south where it trends towards the San Andreas fault. At the northwest, however, its course is obscure. Along with the nearby Clemens Well fault, it extends into an area of fault scarps cutting alluvium on the north flank of the Mecca Hills near Interstate 10.

The Clemens Well fault is a major strike-slip fault, and canyons incised across it show several meters of gouge and crushed rock with near vertical shears and phacoids. Fault slices of volcanic rocks from the Diligencia Formation now occur well to the northwest of their source region on the southeast. These slices within the fault zone indicate right slip on the Clemens Well fault but the magnitude of the total slip is unknown. It is unlikely that the slip is greater than several tens of kilometers at the most. Debris from southwest of the fault eroded from the upper plate of the Orocopia thrust is found in the conglomerates and sedimentary breccias of the Diligencia Formation, now northeast of the fault, and are but little offset. The extent of the Clemens Well fault to the southeast is unknown; on the northwest it is also unclear how it meets the Hidden Springs fault and how both or either of these in turn extend on farther to the northwest.

Other Faults and Folds

At the southeast, rock units and structures are truncated by the Salton Creek fault, which has a roughly east-west trend and has also provided channels for silicic volcanic rocks that now crop out as small dissected domes along the fault

trace. Although displacement of Salton Creek fault is unknown, basement rocks to the south, including Lowe (?) Granodiorite, are quite different from those to the north (Fig. 2).

North of the Clemens Well fault in the eastern Orocopia Mountain terrain underlain by the Diligencia and Maniobra formations is both folded and faulted. Most of the faults in this region are nearly vertical, and have either a northeasterly trend or a northwesterly trend. Several of the northeast striking faults in the Canyon Springs region offset fold axes left laterally; in fact, on at least two of these, the fold hinge-lines show left slip that is nearly horizontal in orientation and up to a kilometer in magnitude.

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STRUCTURE SECTION ACROSS THE SAN ANDREAS FAULT ZONE, MECCA HILLS

Arthur G. Sylvester
University of California
Santa Barbara, California 93106

and

R. R. Smith
Shell Oil Company
Houston, Texas 77001

ABSTRACT

The Mecca Hills lie on the northeast margin of the Salton Trough and consist of Cenozoic crystalline basement rocks overlain by late Cenozoic nonmarine sedimentary rocks. Two parallel, northwest-trending fault segments of the San Andreas fault system subdivide the area into three structurally distinct domains: a relatively undeformed marginal platform on the northeast; a folded and faulted zone 1.5 miles wide between the two faults; and an inferred basin block to the southwest. Faults are high-angle, nearly planar structures that locally flatten abruptly and dip into low-angle thrusts which carry masses of sedimentary rocks short distances from the platform and basin blocks. Associated folds trend west-northwest, perpendicular to the faults and in a step-right echelon arrangement. Where exposed in the central block, the basement-sediment interface is also folded. Basement in the alluvial cores is pervasively fractured and appears to have adjusted cataclastically to contractional strain, whereas the sedimentary mantle folded passively in response to deformation at the basement. The details of these structures are best observed in Painted Canyon which has a relatively deep structural profile across the faults and the three structural domains.

INTRODUCTION

The Mecca Hills offer some of the best exposures and examples of the tectonic geology related to the southern San Andreas fault zone, because structural and topographic relief is relatively high, and there is little or no vegetation and alluvial cover.

This field guide focuses upon Painted Canyon in the center of the area where the most and most representative structural geology can be conveniently studied. The

guide begins in the upper reaches of the canyon where the structure is simple and proceeds down the canyon into the folded and faulted rocks of the fault zone. The guide is based upon previous studies by Dibblee (1954), Hays (1957), Ware (1958), and Sylvester and Smith (1975).

STRUCTURAL AND LITHOLOGIC OVERVIEW

Structure

Four nearly vertical, northwest-striking faults are exposed in Painted Canyon or adjacent canyons. From northeast to southwest, these are: the Platform fault, the Painted Canyon fault, the Skeleton Canyon fault, and the main, most recently active trace of the San Andreas fault (Fig. 1). For the purposes of this report the Skeleton Canyon fault is considered to be a strand of the San Andreas fault. All but the Platform fault branch upward and flatten abruptly into low-angle thrust faults. The Painted Canyon and San Andreas faults subdivide the area into two tectonic domains or blocks that are distinguished mainly by the style and degree of deformation, but also by the type and thickness of the mantle of Cenozoic sedimentary rocks. As shown in Figure 1, the block northeast of the Painted Canyon fault is informally called the platform block; that between the San Andreas and Painted Canyon faults is the central block. A third domain, the basin block, is inferred beneath a thick cover of alluvium southwest of the San Andreas fault. The structural and lithologic contrasts among the three domains are summarized in Table 1.

BASEMENT

The basement is comprised of two main rock units: 1) the Chuckawalla Complex (Miller, 1944), which is chiefly Precambrian gneiss, migmatite, and anortho-

Table 1
LITHOLOGIC AND STRUCTURAL CONTRASTS AMONG THE
THREE STRUCTURAL BLOCKS OF THE MECCA HILLS

Basin Block	Central Block	Platform Block
P r e - C e n o z o i c B a s e m e n t R o c k s		
Not exposed	Highly sheared gneiss and granite of the Chuckawalla Complex	Moderately sheared to unsheared gneissic and plutonic rocks Chuckawalla Complex; Orocopia Schist
	Basement-sediment surface steeply tilted to the southwest	Basement-sediment surface gently inclined to southwest
C e n o z o i c S e d i m e n t a r y R o c k s		
Alluvium	Arkose and conglomeratic arkose	Conglomeratic arkose and conglomerate
Thickness: 3000-5000 m (12,000- 15,000 feet)	Thicker stratigraphic sequence than in eastern block (approximately 1750 m (5000 feet))	Relatively thin stratigraphic sequence (<750 m; <2000 feet)
Structure of sediments beneath alluvial cover is not known	Broad open folds, locally appressed, and overturned, with axes oblique to traces of major faults	Virtually unfolded except for minor drag folds with axes slightly oblique to fault trends
	Steep west-trending normal cross faults	Steep-to-gently inclined north-west-trending normal faults

Table 2
THICKNESSES, AGES, AND LITHOLOGY OF CENOZOIC FORMATIONS IN THE MECCA HILLS (after Dibblee, 1954)

Formation	Lithology
Canebrake-Ocotillo Conglomerate (Pleistocene) 0-750 m (0-5000 feet)	Gray conglomerate of granitic debris in central Mecca Hills, reddish conglomerate of schist in eastern Mecca Hills.
Palm Spring Formation (Pliocene (?) and Pleistocene) 0-1200 m (0-4800 feet)	Upper member: thin-bedded buff arkosic sandstone grading basinward into light greenish sandy siltstone. Lower member: thick-bedded buff arkosic conglomerate and arkose with thin interbeds of grey green siltstone.
Mecca Formation (Pliocene) 0-225 m (0-800 feet)	Reddish arkose, conglomerate, claystone; chiefly metamorphic debris in basal strata.

site and related rocks intruded by Mesozoic (?) plutonic granitic rocks, and 2) the Orocopia Schist which is thought to

have been regionally metamorphosed during late Mesozoic time (Ehlig, 1968). The Chuckawalla Complex is thrust up

Orocopia Schist in the Orocopia Mountains (Crowell, 1962; and this volume), but in the Mecca Hills, the two rock units are separated by the high-angle Platform fault (Fig. 1) and Eagle Canyon fault (Hays, 1962), whose displacements are not well-documented.

CENOZOIC STRATIGRAPHY

Quaternary and Tertiary nonmarine sedimentary rocks (Table 2), including caliche, alluvial fan, braided stream, lacustrine deposits, rest unconformable upon the basement. Stratigraphic relationships, age relationships and correlation of various rock units across faults are not well-known in the area because of numerous depositional discontinuities, lateral and vertical facies changes, lack of fossils and distinctive marker beds.

The gross nature of the stratified sequence, however, records a period of continental deposition near a tectonically active basin margin. Clast lithology and sedimentary structures show that the sedimentary detritus was derived from the Inyo, Little San Bernardino, and Mojave Mountains to the northeast and as it is today.

The Mecca Formation (Table 2) is the youngest unit of the Cenozoic sequence. Composed chiefly of dark-red-weathering detritus locally derived from the Chuckawalla Complex and Orocopia Schist, it forms a conformable blanket from 2 to 5 m thick upon the basement northeast of the Painted Canyon fault. It is much thicker and coarser southwest of the same fault. At the contact with the basement is a less unconformity.

The Palm Spring Formation (Table 2) tends to mark an abrupt change in provenance in that it was derived almost entirely from a granitic terrane. Its deposition in the Mecca Hills area marks the spreading of alluvial fans from the Inyo and Little San Bernardino Mountains across the Mecca pediment to the west.

Like the Mecca Formation, the Palm Spring Formation thickens abruptly across the Painted Canyon fault and is progressively

finer-grained basinward. Numerous diastems within the formation southwest of Painted Canyon fault indicate depositional interruptions reflecting Pliocene-Pleistocene episodes of folding and faulting at the margin of Salton Trough.

STRUCTURAL PROFILE

Upper Painted Canyon:

Platform Block. The upper part of Painted Canyon is incised into the northeastern tectonic domain: the platform block. Near the dry waterfall (Fig. 1) is the best place to observe the relatively undeformed character of the basement and overlying sedimentary rocks, the details of the nonconformable contact, and the geometry of subsidiary faults and associated minor drag folds.

The dry waterfall prevents further access up the canyon by motor vehicle. It is cut into migmatite of the Chuckawalla Complex that is massive and unfractured in contrast to that in the central block. About 200 m up the canyon from the dry waterfall are exposures of anorthosite and related rocks that Crowell and Walker (1962) described and correlated with similar rocks on the west side of the San Andreas fault in the Transverse Ranges. Farther up the canyon, these and other rocks of the Chuckawalla Complex are juxtaposed against the Orocopia Schist by the high-angle Platform fault (Fig. 1). Nearly horizontal slickensides show that the latest movement was horizontal, but drag folds with nearly horizontal axes indicate that a significant component of vertical separation has occurred as well.

The basement is overlain nonconformably by beds of the Mecca and Palm Spring Formations that are much thinner and typically composed of coarser and more angular detritus in this block than in the central block. The contact is a nearly planar, pre-Mecca Formation erosion surface into which channels up to 5 m deep were incised and filled with very coarse and angular Mecca Formation

detritus. The erosion surface and overlying strata dip gently southwestward when mapped from canyon to canyon; except for faulting and minor drag folds adjacent to the faults, however, the Cenozoic sequence is undeformed in the platform block.

Central Painted Canyon:

Central Block. The central block is a 1.5 km wide, northwest-trending zone of broad open folds and relatively minor high-angle faults bounded by the Painted Canyon and San Andreas faults (Fig. 1). North of Painted Canyon the axial traces of most folds trend about N70°W and define a step-right en echelon pattern in the central part of the block; near the edges of the block, however, the folds are appressed, overturned in some instances and trend parallel to, or are truncated by the Painted Canyon and San Andreas faults. The largest and most prominent of these folds is the Mecca Anticline that comprises the topographically highest terrane northwest of Painted Canyon. Only part of the crest and the southwest limb of this fold project into the area shown in Figure 1, whereas the slivers of basement exposed along the Painted Canyon fault represent the core and structurally deepest exposures of the anticline.

Painted Canyon probably received its name from the varicolored exposures of basement and overlying Mecca Formation in the central part of the canyon around localities B, J, and C (Fig. 1). Here dark migmatitic gneiss, intricately intruded by small, irregularly-shaped bodies of white Mesozoic (?) granite and light orange and yellow felsite dikes (K-Ar age about 24 m.y.), is overlain by a very coarse, bouldery facies of dark red-brown-weathering Mecca Formation. The contact is a low-angle buttress unconformity that is best observed on the west wall of the canyon at locality B where it is tilted 60° to the southwest. The contact and overlying beds are folded into a northwest-plunging anticline at locality D. There the northeast limb of the anticline is truncated by the Painted Canyon fault; elsewhere, however, structurally higher parts of the northeast limb are overturned and thrust short

distances upon the platform block (locality C, Fig. 1). In contrast to the relatively unshaped basement in the platform block, the basement in the anticline locality D and adjacent to the Painted Canyon fault, such as at J, is pervasively fractured and sheared into a granulated mass of rock fragments ranging typically from 0.5 to 5 cm in diameter. The degree of fracturing is highest next to the fault. The overlying sedimentary rocks, however, are strongly sheared within a meter or so of the fault plane; the basement-sediment contact is not a plane of slip. These field observations are interpreted as showing that in response to contractional strain, the basement adjusted cataclastically by slip on old fractures and shear planes that are assumed to have formed during a long history of pre-Mecca Formation deformation in the San Andreas fault zone; the sedimentary cover responded to deformation at the basement level by folding passively, partly by intergranular slip and partly by flexural slip concentrated on thin claystone and mudstone beds. This mechanism might be analogous to passive warping of a pliable material over a strained and deformed mass of buckshot.

A small anticline and syncline are prominently exposed in the northwest of Painted Canyon at locality E (Fig. 1). They are relatively minor structures and are not shown on the map, because they die out vertically and laterally in very short distances; they do not project across the canyon to the southeast wall and are only gentle flexures in the northeast canyon to the northwest. These folds and others similar in style and position to the northeast edge of the central block are interpreted as having formed in response to shortening of beds in the fold limb shared by the basement-cored anticline, described above, and the Skele Canyon syncline (Fig. 1).

Painted Canyon Fault. The Painted Canyon fault is a major structural discontinuity at least 24 km long and is defined by a zone of crushed rock and fault gouge ranging from a few centimeters to several meters wide.

fault surface dips more steeply in on bottoms than on adjacent ridges, ing that it is concave downward in s-section. Beneath the low-angle segs, footwall strata of the platform k are dragged abruptly to vertical and turned attitudes. The magnitude and e of slip are not known except for the Mecca Formation vertical component n locally exceeds 150 m as determined offset of the basement-Mecca Formation nformity.

ne geometry of Painted Canyon fault and associated structures is displayed best ne walls of central Painted Canyon as n diagrammatically in Figure 2. The cture is essentially that of an over-ed, faulted anticline in the hanging and an overturned syncline in the foot-. A sequence of beds in the overturned line is buckled between older and ger strata in the way that the pages of at-lying book might be shoved and fold-between their covers. The buckled beds ounded by a triangular arrangement of and low-angle faults that are best ved in Little Painted Canyon at local-E. The thrust faults and associated s are additional manifestations of con-ction and uplift of parts of the central k with respect to the platform and n blocks.

Painted Canyon:

lower part of Painted Canyon, while l within the central block, is a ctural depression in contrast to the ctural culmination where the basement xposed against the Painted Canyon fault. ne proceeds down the canyon, he rises ection stratigraphically from the a Formation, through the lower and r members, respectively, of the Palm ng Formation (Table 2; Fig. 1).

ne lower member of the Palm Spring ation dips steeply down-canyon as part ne southern and locally overturned k of Mecca Anticline. Gently folded undulating strata in the upper member ne Palm Spring Formation nearer the n of the canyon connect with more tly appressed folds northwest and

southeast of the canyon.

San Andreas-Skeleton Canyon Fault Zone:

The southwest side of the central block is bounded by a complex zone of faults and folded sedimentary rocks. At the mouth of Painted Canyon the relative-ly low structural and topographic relief precludes good exposures of these struc-tures, but they may be studied in Skele-ton Canyon, a major tributary marked by low hills of brick-red phacoid-bearing fault gouge of the San Andreas fault on the southeast side of Painted Canyon (locality G). The faults are convex-upward in cross-section and steepen with depth. Locally, tight and nearly verti-cal folds occur beneath low-angle seg-ments of the gouge zones, such as at Locality H. There arkosic sandstones and interbedded siltstones of the upper Palm Spring Formation are strongly fold-ed into steeply-plunging open folds in the core of an overturned syncline be-neath a northeast-dipping thrust segment of the San Andreas fault.

The most recently-active trace of the San Andreas fault is marked northwest of Painted Canyon by aligned gulches and ridge notches, offset stream courses, fault gouge, nearly vertical shear sur-faces with horizontal slickensides, and en echelon fractures and fault scarps in alluvium. Interpretations of several of these features are complementary and consistent, and indicate right-slip movement with local vertical uplift.

Basin Block:

Geophysical studies by Biehler (1964) and Biehler, Kovach and Allen (1964) indicate that the depth to basement ranges from 2000 m to as much as 5000 m beneath Coachella Valley. A steep grav-ity gradient across the San Andreas fault in the Mecca Hills area probably indicates a near vertical step of the basement-sediment interface of at least 4000 m. Thus, the San Andreas fault is the principal structural boundary between the Salton Trough and the high standing terrane to the northeast in the Mecca Hills.

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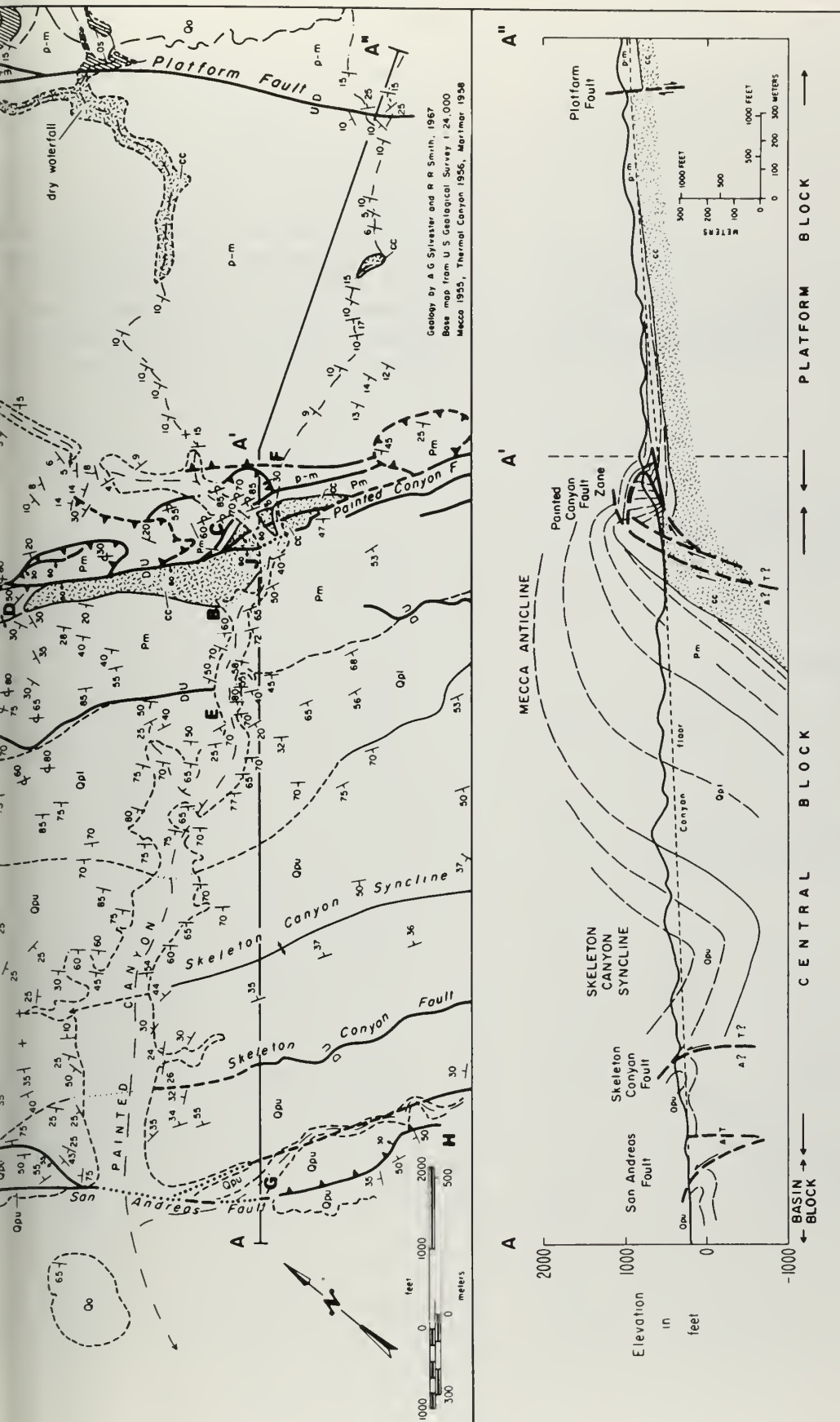


Figure 1. Geologic map and structural profile of Painted Canyon, Mecca Hills. Symbols (oldest to youngest): Chuckawalla Complex (cc); Orocopia Schist (os); Mecca Formation (Pm); Palm Spring Formation (Qp1, lower member; Qpu, upper member); Palm Spring and Mecca Formations, undifferentiated (p-m); Canebrake-Ocotillo Conglomerate, undifferentiated (Qo).

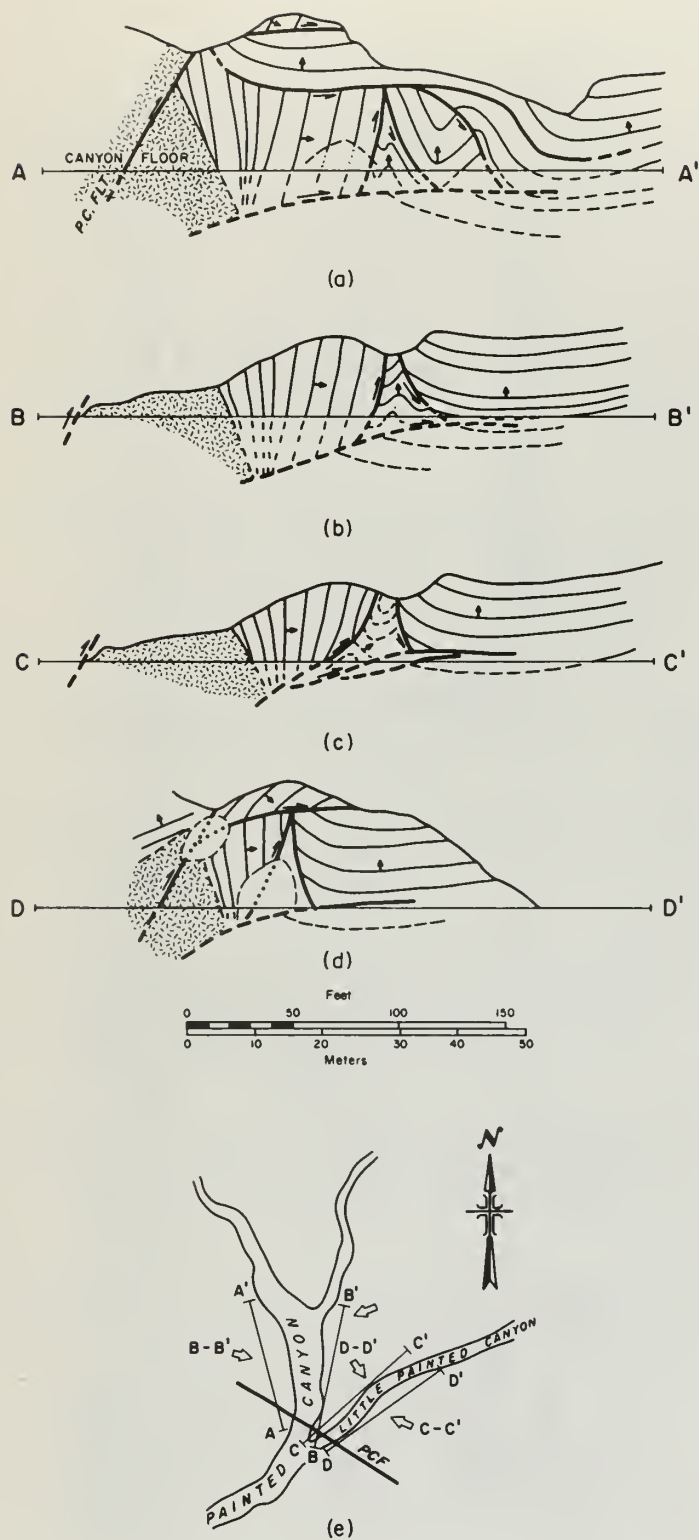


Figure 2.

Generalized cross-sections of buckled beds and low- to high-angle faults in the footwall of the Painted Canyon fault: (a) Northwest wall, Painted Canyon; (b) Southeast wall, Painted Canyon; (c) Northwest wall, Little Painted Canyon; (d) Southeast wall, Little Painted Canyon; (e) index map showing locations of cross-sections. In (a), (b), (c), and (d) arrows indicate tops of beds. In (e) open arrows indicate view points for cross-sections.

GEOLOGY OF THE COACHELLA FANGLOMERATE

Martin S. Peterson
College of the Siskiyous
Redding, California 96094

ABSTRACT

The Coachella Fanglomerate is located between the north and south branches of the San Andreas fault in the vicinity of the Colorado River, north of Palm Springs. The fanglomerate consists of up to 1500 m of coarse conglomerate and breccia with well-bedded minor sandstone lenses and is divided into two units: a light gray upper unit that is predominately fluvial and a lower, dark-colored unit that is primarily composed of debris-flow deposits.

The fanglomerate formed as a large alluvial fan or bajada in a deep subsiding basin 10.0 \pm 1.2 m.y. ago (Miocene), and was derived from a source area north of the Mission Creek fault. The source area was composed of metamorphic, granitic and volcanic rocks. Metamorphic clasts in the fanglomerate decrease in abundance up-section at the expense of granitic clasts while the percentage of metamorphic clasts remains constant, thus indicating that the character of the source area was changing through time. Roundness of melanocratic clasts increases up-section while mean size decreases. This indicates that the source area was being eroded northward through time.

Distinctive clasts of porphyritic quartz monzonite and magnetite occur throughout the fanglomerate and appear to have been derived from a source area near the Colorado Muchacho Mountains. Such a correlation requires 215 km of right-separation within the San Andreas fault system.

INTRODUCTION

The Coachella Fanglomerate consists of 1000 m thick, east-dipping, well indurated Miocene fanglomerate. The fanglomerate is exposed over an area of approximately 17 km² near Whitewater, California

at the east end of San Geronimo Pass. The fanglomerate has been previously mapped and described by Vaughn (1922), Allen (1954, 1957), Dibblee (1954) and Proctor (1963). In the present study, the fanglomerate is described in greater detail and its environment of deposition interpreted. Because the Coachella Fanglomerate lies immediately south of the Mission Creek fault (north branch of the San Andreas fault) and sediment-transport directions indicate a source area north of the fault, information may be obtained concerning strike-slip separation along this portion of the fault since the time of deposition of the fanglomerate.

SUMMARY OF REGIONAL GEOLOGY

Basement Rocks

Basement rocks in the region were first mapped by Vaughn (1922) and later by Allen (1957) who named the basement terrain north of San Geronimo Pass the San Geronimo igneous-metamorphic complex. The most widespread rock type is migmatitic gneiss although slightly sheared augen gneiss, epidiorite-bearing gneiss and greenschist are locally present. The Cactus Quartz Monzonite, consisting of granitic rocks ranging from quartz monzonite to quartz diorite with subordinate granite, is present north of San Geronimo Mountain.

Present beneath the Coachella Fanglomerate near Red Dome in Whitewater Canyon, and exposed along the south side of Mission Creek, is a slightly metamorphosed potassium-feldspar porphyritic quartz monzonite with large orthoclase phenocrysts. Clasts of identical mineralogy and texture are common throughout the Coachella Fanglomerate and are quite distinct.

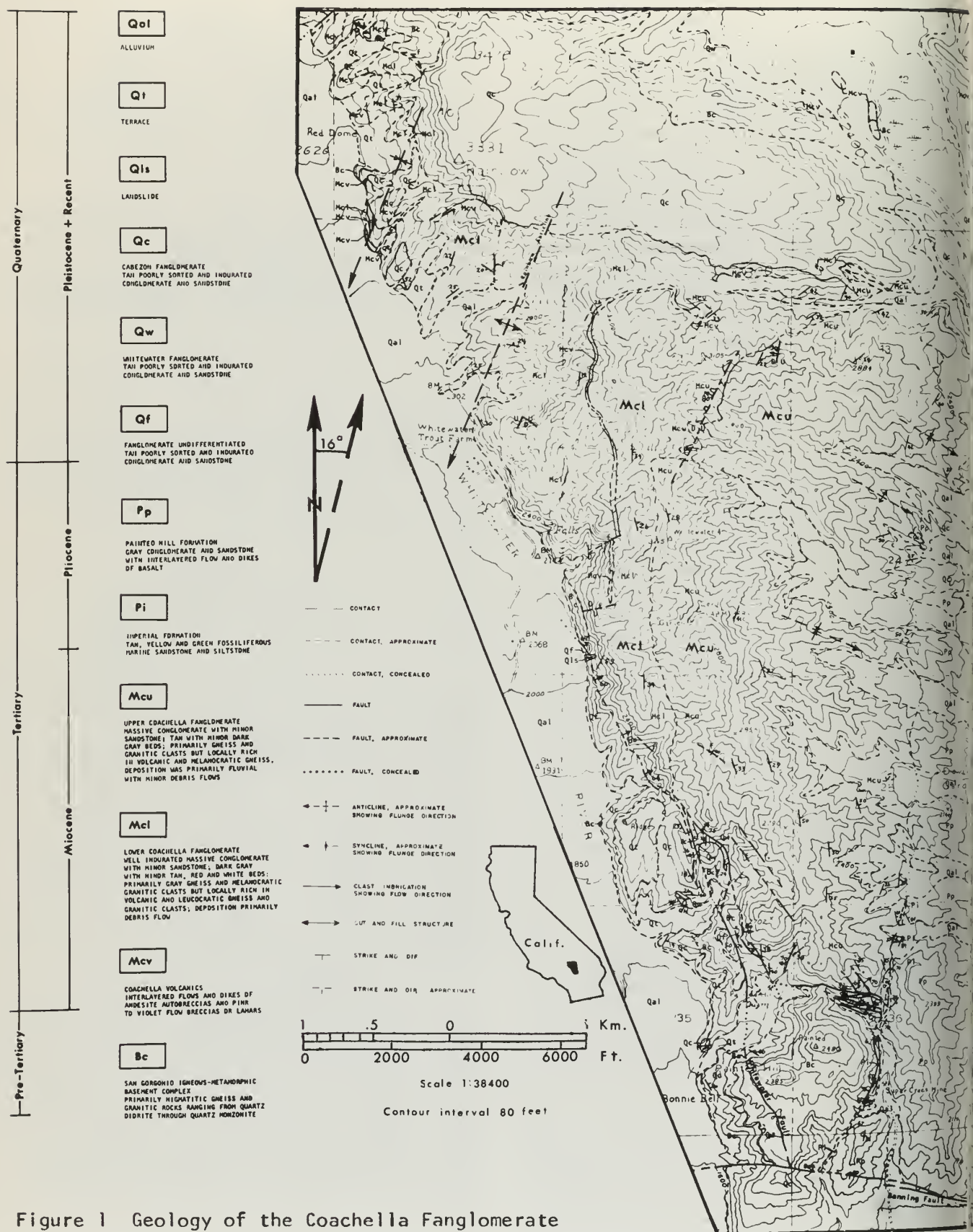


Figure 1 Geology of the Coachella Fanglomerate

Geography of Sedimentary Rocks

The oldest sedimentary rocks in the section are those of the late Miocene Coachella Fanglomerate (Fig. 2). These rocks are probably correlative, at least in age and provenance, with the Split Mountain Formation of the Coachella and Imperial Ranges (Proctor, 1968).

The lower Pliocene (Wilson, 1940; Durston, 1950) Imperial Formation unconformably overlies the Coachella Fanglomerate. The Imperial Formation ranges in thickness from 0 to 30 m in the study area and wedges out to the north (Fig. 1). The formation consists of gray-green claystone, siltstone and sandstone, locally containing marine fossils.

The Imperial Formation grades upward into the Painted Hill Formation. These units consist of up to 1020 m of pale green, coarse-grained conglomerate and arkosic sandstone (Allen, 1954). The Painted Hill Formation may be correlative with the Canbrake Conglomerate (Dibblee, 1932; Dibblee, 1954; Proctor, 1968).

The Painted Hill Formation is unconformably overlain by the Deformed Gravels of the Whitewater River and the Cabezon Conglomerate, both Quaternary in age (Allen, 1954, 1957). These formations consist of poorly sorted, poorly bedded, clay and bouldery, tan arkosic sandstone with clasts of gneiss and granitic rocks and minor amounts of basalt (?) (Allen, 1922). Proctor (1968) proposes that the Cabezon/Whitewater Fanglomerates are correlative with the Ocotillo Formation of the Indio Hills.

COACHELLA FANGLOMERATE

Description

The Coachella Fanglomerate was named by Proctor (1922) and was restricted and described by Allen (1954, 1957). The type section on the east side of Whitewater River at the trout farm consists of up to

1500 m of coarse-grained, well-indurated fanglomerate and may be separated into an upper and lower unit based upon color and mode of deposition (Fig. 2).

The lower unit is primarily dark gray, although low in the section concentrations of volcanic or leucocratic granitic and metamorphic debris give the rocks a red or white color respectively. The white units lense out to the east and south, indicating a north-westerly source, whereas the red units become indistinct in all directions.

The lower Coachella Fanglomerate is dominated by breccia deposits possessing only a crude stratification. Individual depositional units are generally unsorted and massive. Most clasts are matrix supported and lack any consistent orientation. The matrix of these deposits consists of approximately 40% silt, 35% sand and 25% gravel (Peterson, 1973) and are interpreted as being debris-flow deposits.

Well stratified deposits are also common especially near the base of the section. These deposits often show well developed clast imbrication. The matrix consists of approximately 20% silt, 70% sand and 10% gravel (Peterson, 1973) and are interpreted as being fluvial in origin.

The dark gray color of the lower unit is due to an abundance of melanocratic granitic and metamorphic clasts. Melanocratic granitic clasts are generally the most abundant, followed by volcanic, leucocratic granitic, metamorphic and potassium-feldspar porphyritic quartz monzonite, in that order. Clasts of magnetite also occur in small amounts but only in the northern part of the fanglomerate.

Approximately 250 m above the base of the section is a 23 m thick series of pale red and violet volcanic flows. The flows consist of olivine basalt and pyroxene andesite autobreccias or lahars (?). The volcanic rocks wedge out to the south and end abruptly on the north near a dike of similar material. The dike may represent

the source of the flows. Professor Daniel Krummenacher at San Diego State University obtained a K-Ar date of 10.0 ± 1.2 m.y. on a sample of pyroxene andesite auto-breccia.

The upper Coachella Fanglomerate is light gray to tan in color and is characterized by fluvial deposits. Debris-flows are present but to a much lesser extent than in the lower unit. Volcanic clasts are generally the most abundant, followed by melanocratic granitic, metamorphic and potassium-feldspar porphyritic quartz monzonite.

Lithology. In general, volcanic clasts tend to increase in abundance up-section in the fanglomerate at the expense of granitic clasts, whereas metamorphic clasts remain essentially constant. Clasts of potassium-feldspar porphyritic quartz monzonite show a marked decrease in abundance up-section.

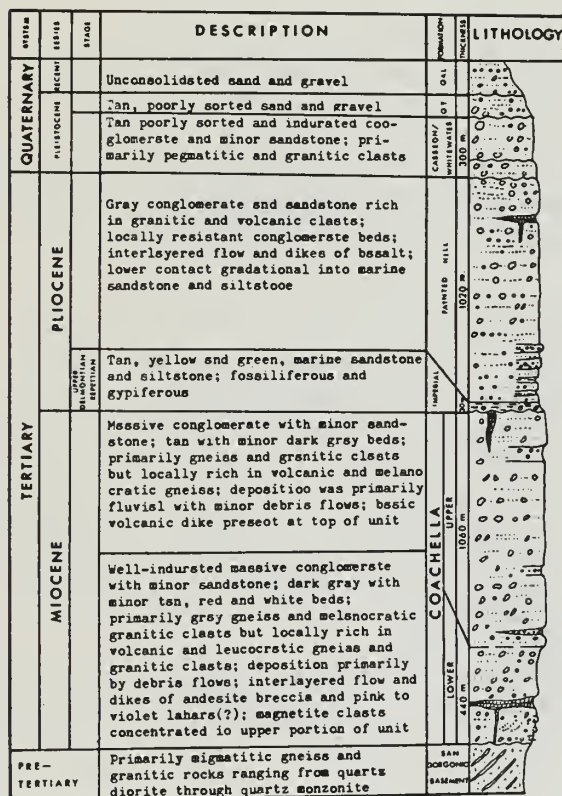


Figure 2. Regional stratigraphy.

Trends in clast lithology indicate metamorphic terrain as a source area with granitic plutons decreasing in area of exposure with time. Volcanic sources apparently increased in exposure with time.

The changes in clast lithology might be due to juxtaposing the fan and different source areas along a strike slip fault. Studies of sediment transport directions indicate that the source of the fanglomerate lies north of the presently active Mission Creek fault (north branch of the San Andreas fault) (Fig.) and using the present rate of movement of 2.6 cm/yr. and a rate of deposition of 0.33 m/100 yrs. (Bull, 1964a), approximately 11.7 km of right slip could have occurred during the time of deposition of the fanglomerate.



Figure 3. Summary of 56 sediment transport directions.

the inverse relationship between volcanic and granitic clasts can also be explained by volcanic extrusions covering much of the granitic source area. Another possibility is that headward erosion within the source area progressed through a metamorphic and granitic terrain to a volcanic terrain, thus changing the relative abundance of clast lithologies deposited in the fan. This could have been aided by erosion of drainage divides by drainage interception.

Roundness. Mean roundness of melanocratic igneous clasts, within fluvial deposits compared to stratigraphic position and lateral position within particular stratigraphic horizons. Roundness was found to increase slightly up-section thus indicating an increasing distance of transport from headward erosion of the source area through time. Paleocurrent data indicates a northerly source area (Fig. 3) and it is expected that mean roundness would increase with distance from the northernmost exposures of the fanglomerate, however, results were inconsistent. This may be explained by debris-flows carrying large clasts far out onto the fan and being reworked into fluvial deposits, thus decreasing the mean roundness.

Sternberg's law (Pettijohn, 1957) predicts an exponential decrease in size of clasts with the distance of transport in rivers, Chavner (in Krumbein, 1942) and Barker (1962) find the same relationship to be valid for alluvial fans. Mean maximum, intermediate diameters of melanocratic igneous clasts, in fluvial deposits, within the Coachella Fanglomerate were plotted on semi-log paper against the distance from the formations northernmost exposures. Results show a general decrease in size with distance of transport, indicating a northerly source area.

Sedimentology

Paleocurrent indicators. The primary purpose of ascertaining the paleo-slope and local direction of sediment transport is by clast imbrication. Imbrication within the Coachella Fanglomerate is

usually due to the impingement of one clast onto another although matrix-supported imbricated clasts also occur. Cut-and-fill structures are rather uncommon in the fanglomerate and no outcrops were found which gave a direction of sediment transport but six outcrops gave a line of movement, five of them have a northeast-southwest orientation. Only one occurrence of cross-bedding was found in the fanglomerate and it yields a direction of movement from the northeast to the southwest.

The composite plot of all paleocurrent indicators (Fig. 3) has a radial pattern which would be expected for alluvial-fan deposits, but it is also markedly bimodal. The average current direction is N02E with the direction of transport from the north to the south, but the bimodal distribution may indicate two separate source areas. Facies changes near the trout farm in Whitewater Canyon indicate that the present outcrop area of the Coachella Fanglomerate may have been a zone of confluence between two alluvial fans at the time of deposition. The paleocurrent data would tend to support this hypothesis.

Mode of deposition. The Coachella Fanglomerate is dominated by massive, poorly sorted depositional units of coarse conglomerate and breccia. Clasts up to 3 m are present and most are matrix supported. Some units are inversely graded but other sedimentary structures are rare. According to Fisher's (1971) criteria the writer interprets these units to be debris-flow deposits.

Many depositional units within the Coachella Fanglomerate are well stratified and often contain small sandstone lenses. Sedimentary structures are common within these units and consist primarily of imbricated clasts. The writer believes these units are formed by fluvial processes.

Blackwelder (1926), Blissenbach (1954), Bull (1964a, b) and Hooke (1967) suggest that debris-flow processes are most dominant near fan apices, but such deposits are found throughout the

Coachella Fanglomerate, although they are concentrated in the lower portion of the section. This may indicate that the present exposure of the fanglomerate was deposited near the apex of a much larger alluvial fan and that the source area, and therefore the fan apex, was transgressing to the north with time.

Structure

Faults. The Whitewater fault (Allen, 1954, 1957) forms the western boundary of the Coachella Fanglomerate. It extends along the east side of the Whitewater River from its intersection with the Banning fault on the south, to at least Red Dome on the north (Fig. 1) (Riverside County Flood Control Office, 1971). Where exposed, the fault juxtaposes the Coachella Fanglomerate against rocks of the basement complex and Quaternary fanglomerate. The fault dips 60° to 30° to the east and displays both normal and reverse separations. The fault zone is usually marked by up to 2 m of basement gouge. Shear zones extend into the basement rocks for as much as 150 m but never more than a few meters into the Coachella Fanglomerate. Quaternary fanglomerates rarely show any evidence of deformation.

A series of small faults form the southern termination of the Coachella Fanglomerate and extend in a zone 200 m wide, from the Whitewater fault on the west to Super Creek on the east (Fig. 1). The faults are all nearly vertical and juxtapose rocks of the basement complex against the Coachella Fanglomerate in narrow fault slices. An olivine basalt dike (Allen, 1957), ranging in thickness from 2 to 20 m has been intruded along one of the faults. The faults were active between 8 and 10 m.y. ago, because they cut the upper Coachella Fanglomerate but are overlain by the Imperial Formation.

At its northern boundary, the Coachella Fanglomerate is overlapped by Quaternary fanglomerates and its full extent cannot be determined; however, the northwesternmost outcrop is in fault contact with the

basement complex. The basement source area of the fanglomerate may have been uplifted along this fault.

Many small faults occur within the Coachella Fanglomerate and are generally parallel to the major bounding faults, especially the Whitewater fault. The largest of these lesser faults extends for approximately 1 km and shows normal dip separation of about 3 m.

Folds. The northwestern portion of the Coachella Fanglomerate is folded into broad open anticline and syncline trending $N20^{\circ}E$ and plunging gently to the southwest (Fig. 1). The prominent volcanic flows interbedded within the lower unit were involved in the folding so that its western continuation is exposed in the core of the syncline. The volcanic flow in this area is actually two flows separated by 5 m of dark gray fanglomerate.

Three very broad folds are present along the eastern margin of the Coachella Fanglomerate. Their fold axes trend N and plunge gently to the southeast.

Location of Possible Source Terrains

Distinctive clasts of potassium-feldspar porphyritic quartz monzonite are present throughout the Coachella Fanglomerate. The potassium-feldspar occurs as pink phenocrysts up to 2 cm in diameter and set in a very dark matrix. Often the matrix possesses a greenish tinge due to the presence of epidote. Microscopic examination reveals that the rocks have been metamorphosed to lowest greenschist facies and large quartz grains have recrystallized into concentrations of smaller quartz crystals. The rocks often contain xenoliths of quartz diorite composition. Basement rocks of this type outcrop beneath the fanglomerate in Whitewater Canyon and south of the Mission Creek fault zone within Mission Creek Canyon, but none is known to be present immediately north of the fault zone.

Magnetite clasts up to a meter in diameter, are present within the lower

hella Fanglomerate. These rocks contain traces of muscovite and scapolite as well as veins of epidote. Their large size and unusual mineralogy make them a distinct rock type. Similar rocks are present as concentrations within the potassium-feldspar porphyritic quartz monzonite of Mission Creek Canyon, but are not known north of the Mission Creek fault zone.

It is possible that these rock types, at one time, present north of the Mission Creek fault zone, and have since been removed by erosion, implying little or lateral offset. It seems more likely that the source area has been displaced laterally, perhaps to the south, but an unknown distance.

Identical clasts of potassium-feldspar porphyritic quartz monzonite are present in Miocene (?) fanglomerates east of the San Andreas fault near the southern base of the Chocolate Mountains and within the Bear Canyon Formation near the Colorado River. Also, basement outcrops of very similar quartz monzonite are present on the west side of the Cargo Muchacho Mountains. Magnetite bearing clasts are also present in the Cargo Muchacho Mountains.

If the Southern Chocolate Mountains/Cargo Muchacho Mountains region were the source area for the Coachella Fanglomerate, it would require approximately 215 km of right-separation since the time of deposition. This corresponds to a rate of 2.15 cm/yr within the San Andreas fault system during the last 10 m.y. These results are in keeping with other studies using different rocks dated by the Southern San Andreas fault (Crowell, 1962; Crowell & Walker, 1962; Ehlig & Ehler, 1972).

CONCLUSIONS

The Coachella Fanglomerate was deposited in an arid to semi-arid climate and derived from a complex area of meta-sedimentary, granitic and volcanic rock types. The source area stood at high relief and

was eroded northward through time as suggested by increasing clast roundness and decreasing clast size up-section. Headward erosion of the source area is further supported by younger portions of the fanglomerate lying directly upon the basement pediment in northern exposures. The abundance of debris-flow deposits and the presence of very large clasts (>3 m) throughout the fanglomerate indicate that the present outcrop of the formation was deposited near the apex of a very large fan or edge of a bajada. Volcanism occurred during deposition of the fanglomerate as indicated by the presence of a 23 m thick series of volcanic flows within the lower unit.

Studies based upon distinctive clast lithologies suggest that the source area for the Coachella Fanglomerate was along the western side of the Cargo Muchacho Mountains. The fanglomerate has subsequently been offset 215 km within the San Andreas fault system. Uplift of the source area may also have occurred within the same fault system.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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LATE QUATERNARY UPLIFT OF THE SAN BERNARDINO MOUNTAINS
ON THE SAN ANDREAS AND RELATED FAULTS

Thomas W. Dibblee, Jr.
U.S. Geological Survey
Menlo Park, California 94025

ABSTRACT

The San Bernardino Mountains were uplifted in late Quaternary time along the north of the San Andreas fault system and the Pinto Mountain fault. This range is composed of two structural blocks of different pre-Cenozoic basement rocks, separated along the San Andreas fault and its north branch (Mill Creek-Mission Creek fault of Allen, 1957). The north block is eroded from an elevated mass of granitic basement that is part of the Mojave Desert crustal block, and the south block is a strip within the San Andreas fault system eroded from basement like that of the San Gabriel Mountains. Uplift of the San Bernardino Mountains and thrusting along their margins is attributed to extension that may be the effect of lateral obstruction of right slip on the San Andreas fault system by left slip on the Pinto Mountain fault intersecting it from the east.

INTRODUCTION

This report summarizes the regional geology of the San Bernardino Mountains from the author's own mapping (Dibblee, 1967a, b, 1967a, b, c, 1970, 1974a, b, unpublished mapping listed by Rogers, 1970, together with the author's interpretations of its genesis and fault patterns (Dibblee, 1967d, 1968b). The author's mapping and structural interpretations differ from those of Vaughan (1922) and Allen (1957).

The San Bernardino Mountains were uplifted within and north of the San Andreas fault system west of its intersection by the Pinto Mountain fault in late Quaternary time to form the eastern extension of the Transverse Ranges. Uplift of this range is apparently related to lateral movements on these major faults. In order to demonstrate this, it is necessary to indicate (1) the geologic structure of this range, (2) its

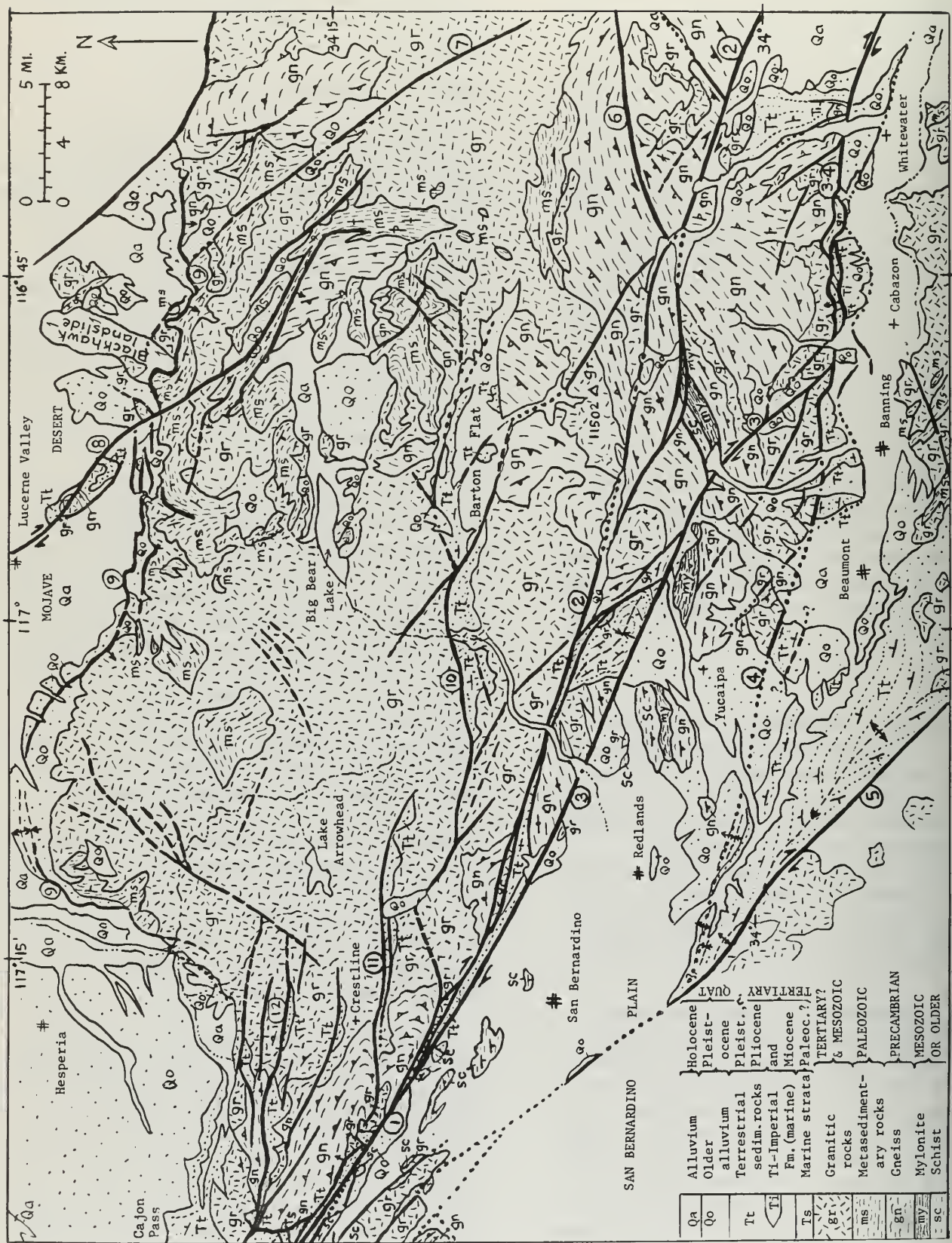
geomorphic evolution, (3) movements on the major faults that bound or transect it, and (4) its probable tectonic genesis.

GEOLOGIC STRUCTURE

The geology of the San Bernardino Mountains is generalized on figure 1, and its geomorphology as related to the major faults, on figure 2. As shown thereon, the San Andreas fault bifurcates southward eastward near San Bernardino into two strands, the north branch (Mission Creek fault of Vaughan, 1922, Allen, 1957, and Mill Creek fault of Allen, 1957) and the south branch. The San Andreas fault and its north branch divide this range into two structural blocks of different basement terranes, the north block and the south block (fig. 2).

The north block is eroded from an elevated mass of granitic basement that is part of the granitic batholith of the Mojave Desert and that contains pendants of gneiss and metasedimentary rocks. It is therefore geologically part of the Mojave crustal block and indeed was part of the Mojave Desert during Tertiary and probably early Quaternary time. The southwestern part of the north block from Cajon Pass to Barton Flats (fig. 1) is broken into several northward-tilted fault blocks that contain remnants of north-dipping Pliocene (?) fluvial sediments (Crowder Formation, Dibblee, 1970, and Santa Ana Sandstone of Vaughan, 1922 in Dibblee, 1964b), indicating this part was a valley that probably extended southeastward from the Cajon basin in Pliocene(?) time. The bounding faults are vertical or steep.

The south block is within the San Andreas fault system. It is eroded from a gneiss--plutonic complex, mylonite, and (Pelona) schist, in that order of descending structural relations (fig. 1). This suite of rocks is like that of the San Gabriel Mountains to the west (Dibblee, 1968b, p. 266) and unlike that of the north block. These unlike blocks were therefore juxtaposed along the San



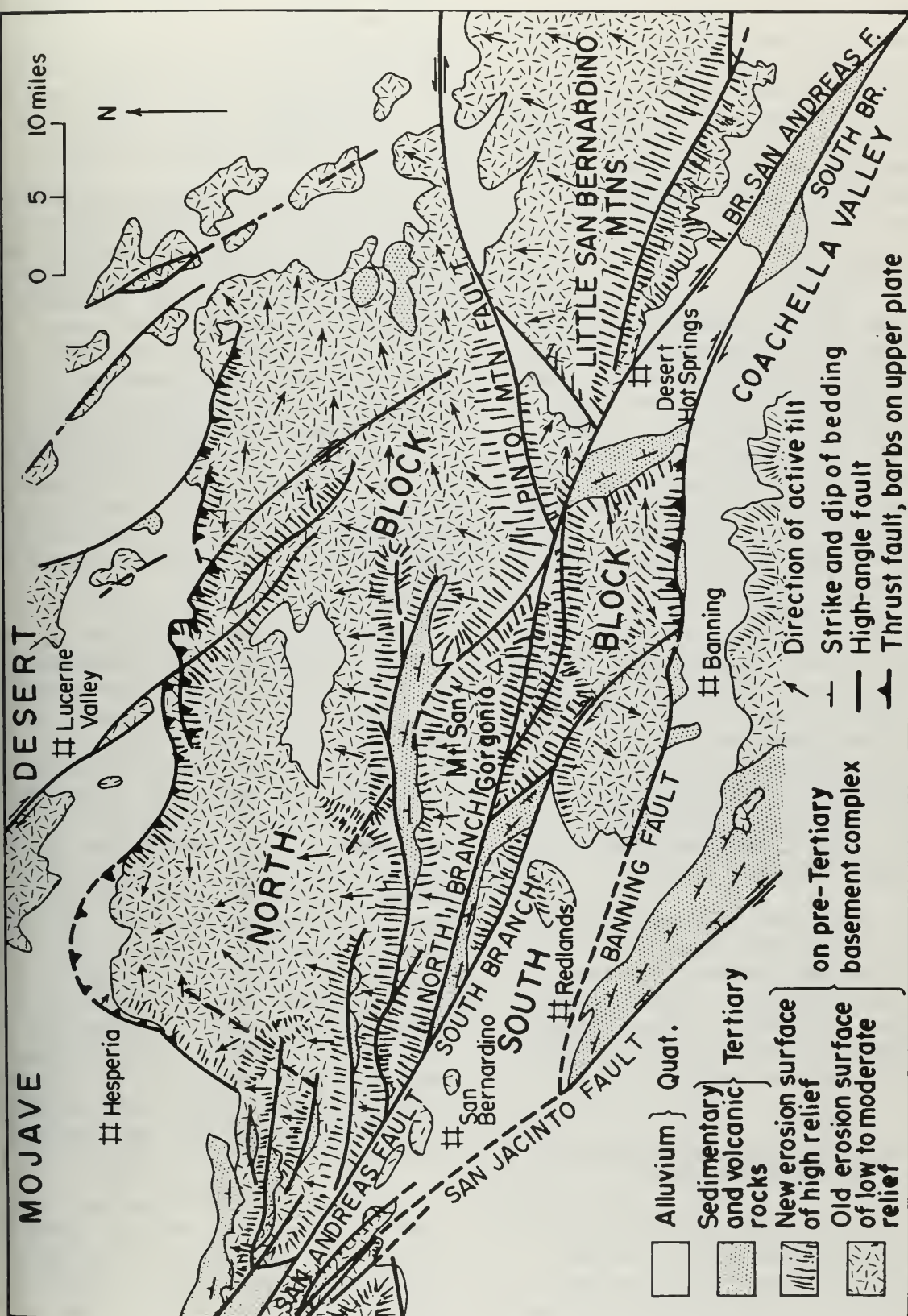


Figure 2.--Geomorphology of the San Bernardino Mountains and its relationship to major faulting.

Andreas fault and its north branch.

The south block is composed of two slices separated diagonally by the south branch of the San Andreas fault. The northeast slice is mountainous and contains Cenozoic sedimentary deposits (fig. 1). The southwest slice is of low relief and in large part covered by Quaternary alluvium and is not known to contain Tertiary strata.

GEOMORPHIC EVOLVEMENT

Because the San Bernardino Mountains are very young, the geomorphology of this range expresses the way in which it was elevated in late Quaternary time (fig. 2). When the north block was part of the Mojave Desert, its surface was eroded to low relief by early Quaternary time and was traversed by a small valley that now contains Big Bear Lake. In late Quaternary time the north block was elevated as shown (fig. 2) so that its old erosion surface is now a plateau. The fault-bounded margins of this block are steep, newly eroded fronts. Where there are no bounding faults, the old erosion surface is tilted outward toward the Mojave Desert. The southwestern part of the north block has been differentially elevated as several north-tilted fault blocks (fig. 2). As a result of its rapid uplift, this upland is being dissected by deep, youthful canyons.

The south block was only partly elevated in late Quaternary time. The northeast slice was elevated together with the north block and in part thrust southward east of Banning. The southwest slice remained depressed in its western part and in large part was covered by alluvium.

MOVEMENTS ON THE SAN ANDREAS AND RELATED FAULTS AND PINTO MOUNTAIN FAULT

The San Andreas fault system through the San Bernardino Mountains is a complex group of anastomosing high-angle faults within a strip bounded by the San Andreas fault and its north branch on

the north and by the Banning fault on south (fig. 1). Although movements of this system were primarily right-slip during much of Cenozoic time, the San Bernardino Mountains apparently were elevated vertically on the north side of the San Andreas fault and its two branches in late Quaternary time.

In the San Bernardino Mountains the north branch of the San Andreas fault forms a trenchlike gash through this range, especially south of its highest part, striking N 75° W. Movement on this segment was upward on the north, as well as right lateral. However, this segment has not moved since sometime in the Pleistocene because part of it is covered by dissected but unfaulted Pleistocene alluvium (Dibblee, 1964a). Recently formed scarps that resulted largely from right-slip movements occur only at the west end of this fault, and along its southeastward extension in Coachella Valley (fig. 2).

The San Andreas fault and its south branch southeastward to Banning strike about N 60° W and bound the precipitous southwest front of the range, indicating vertical uplift on the northeast in late Quaternary time. However, fault scarps and offset or deflected stream channels or canyons are prevalent along this alignment (Morton and Miller, this volume) and indicate right-lateral movements in Holocene time. Near Banning the south branch joins the east-trending Banning fault to become a north-dipping thrust fault for 11 km (7 mi) along which basement rocks are thrust over Cenozoic deposits, including Quaternary fan gravels (Allen, 1957; Dibblee, 1964). Eastward from Whitewater this combined fault becomes vertical and resumes its normal southeastward trend through the Coachella Valley (figs. 2, 4, 5).

The Banning fault near and west of Banning is nearly vertical where exposed along which the basement complex on the north is elevated against Cenozoic sedimentary deposits on the south; elsewhere it is covered by dissected but unfaulted

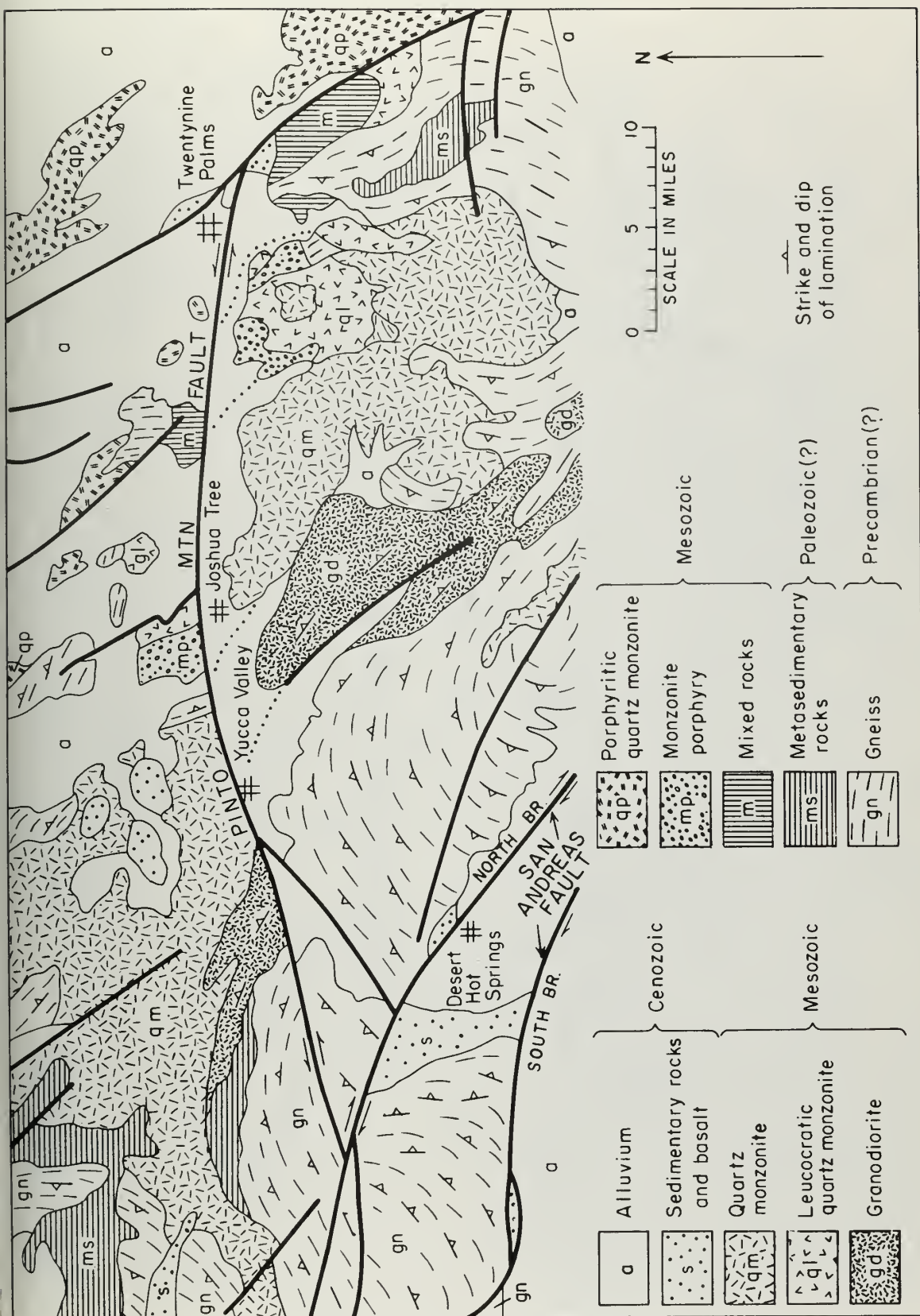


Figure 3.--Geology along the Pinto Mountain fault.

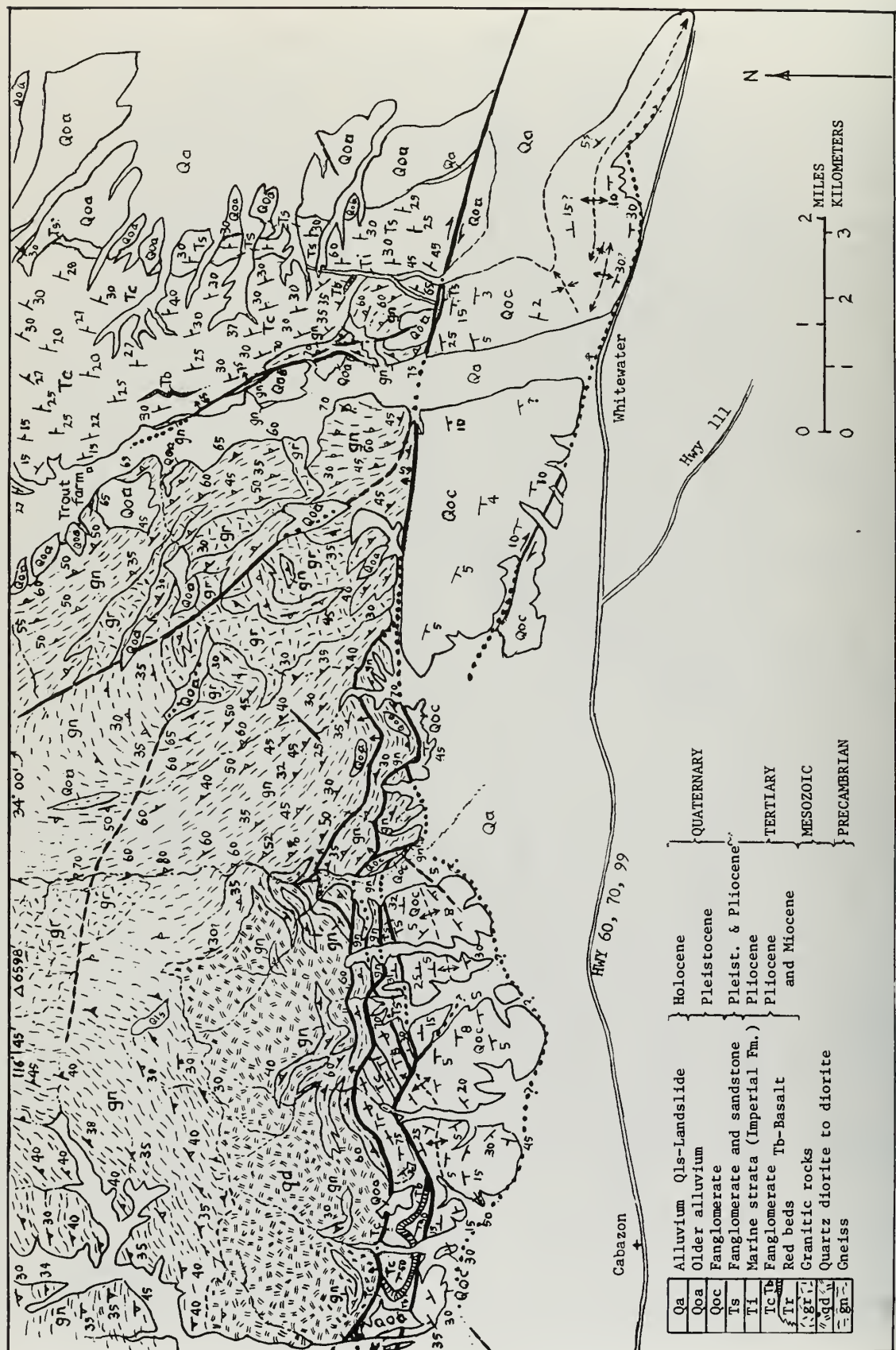


Figure 4. Geology along the combined Banning and south branch of San Andreas fault near Cabazon and Whitewater (Geology by T. W. Dibblee Jr., 1968).

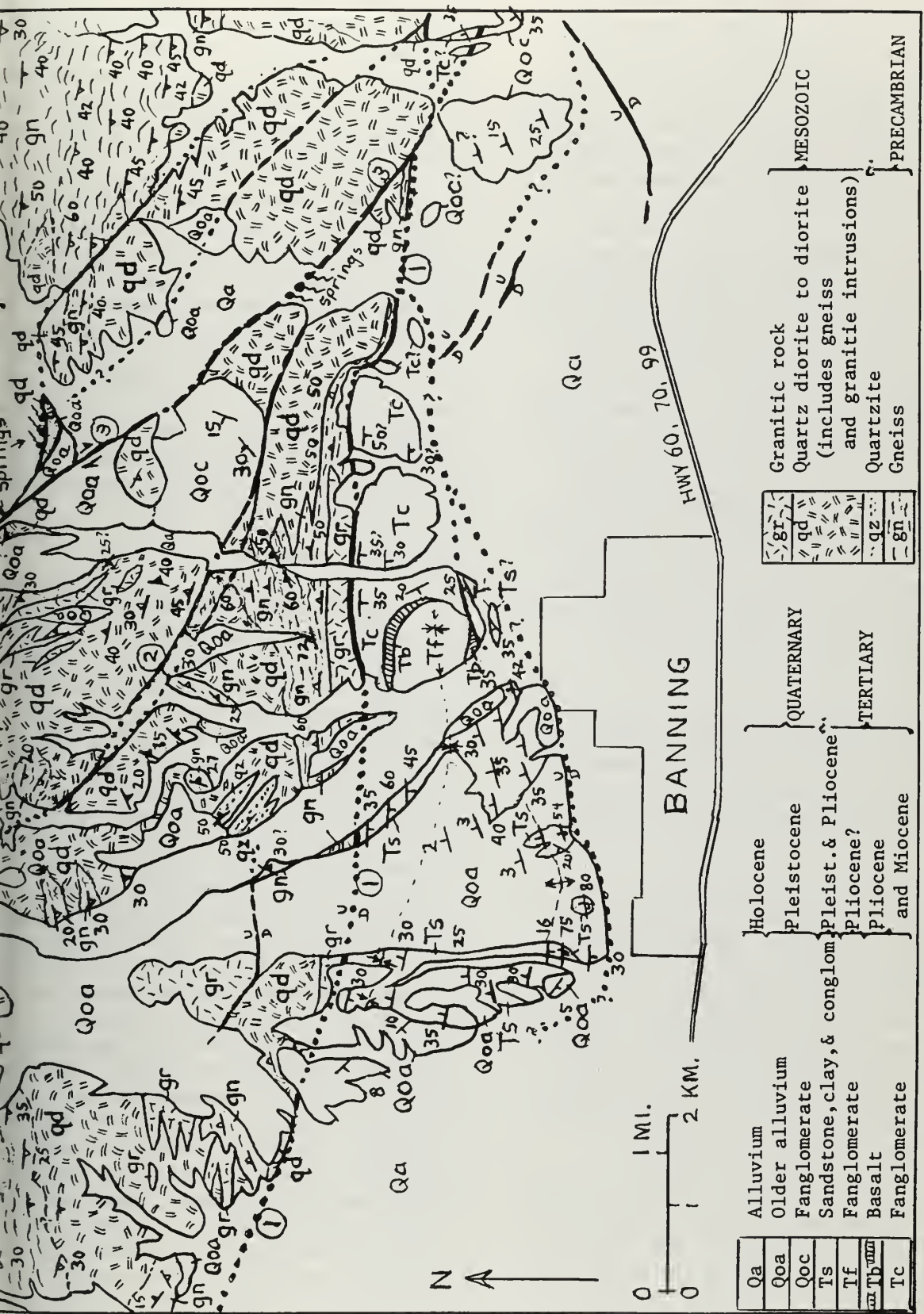


Figure 5. Geology along the Banning and south branch of San Andreas fault near Banning. Faults as follows: 1, Banning; 2, Gandy Ranch; 3, south branch of San Andreas (Geology by T. W. Dibblee Jr., 1968).

Pleistocene alluvium (fig. 1) and is therefore inactive. South of Redlands it presumably extends west under the Quaternary alluvium toward the younger San Jacinto fault along which it may have been displaced northwest about 18 km (13 mi) to what is now the Cucamonga fault along the south base of the San Gabriel Mountains (fig. 2).

The Pinto Mountain fault extends about 80 km (50 mi) eastward from its juncture with the San Andreas north branch fault into the Mojave Desert (figs. 2, 3), and is nearly vertical where exposed and locally forms scarplets in Pleistocene alluvium (Dibblee, 1967a, b, 1968a, 1970). Although displacement is up on the north at the western part of the fault, the main overall movement is left lateral ranging from nearly zero at its west end to a maximum of 16 km (11 mi) near and east of its mid-point (Dibblee, 1967d). This movement is indicated by displacement of pre-Cenozoic rock units and the displaced antiform structure in the gneiss (fig. 3).

The south-dipping thrust faults along the northern margin of the San Bernardino Mountains and associated right-lateral faults form north-facing scarplets across alluvial fan gravels (Dibblee, 1964a, 1967c, 1970, 1974a).

The earliest lateral movement on the San Andreas fault system in this area, presumably in Tertiary time, may have been along the Banning fault, along which the basement terrane of the south block of the San Bernardino Mountains was elevated and juxtaposed against that of the Peninsular Ranges to the southwest (Dibblee, 1968b, p. 271), but this movement ceased in Quaternary time as the fault became buried by alluvium.

A large amount of right-lateral movement on the San Andreas fault and its north branch prevailed in late Tertiary (?) and Quaternary time along which the gneiss, mylonite, and schist exposed south of this fault alignment may have been separated about 96 km (60 mi) from

a similar suite of rocks exposed north east of the San Andreas fault in the Orocochia Mountains (Dibblee, 1968b, p. 269, fig. 5). During that time this strand must have been the principal of transcurrent movement on the San Andreas fault system.

By late Quaternary time, right-slip apparently ceased on the north branch within the San Bernardino Mountains and became transferred along the south branch diagonally across the south block of this range to the old Banning fault, eastward from Banning, to reactivate that segment. The south branch in part may have formed as a new strand because north of Banning it displaces south-dipping gneiss, mylonite, and schist of the south block right laterally only 3 km (2 mi) or less (fig. 1).

TECTONIC GENESIS

Uplift of the San Bernardino Mountains resulted from compression that may be the indirect(?) effect of partial obstruction of right-slip on the San Andreas fault system by left-slip on the intersecting Pinto Mountain fault or by the stress that generated it. Left-slip movement on the Pinto Mountain fault indicates that the terrane north of it moved westward relative to that south of it and has impinged against the San Andreas fault system to the west. This transcurrent movement may have caused the segment of the north branch west of this juncture to bend into a nearly west-trend, and may have similarly affected the western segment of the south branch and the Banning fault to the southwest, if these segments originally transected this area with more uniform northwest trends. These nearly west-trending segments of the San Andreas fault system including the west-trending segment of the south branch that joins the Banning fault east of Banning, became barriers to the northwestward movement of the terrane southwest of this fault system relative to that on the northeast, because these segments became oriented at a large angle to the direction of this

scurrent movement. But because this movement, if constant, is irresistible, terrane on one side of these nearly E-trending segments, the north side in this area, has been compressed and forced upward to form the San Bernardino Mountains. Outward thrusting at the margins of this range, such as the southward thrusting on the south branch east of Orange and the northward thrusting on the northern margin, are effects of this compressive uplift, resulting in a north-south crustal shortening on and near this part of the San Andreas fault system.

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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GEOLOGY OF THE SAN ANDREAS FAULT ZONE NORTH OF SAN BERNARDINO
BETWEEN CAJON CANYON AND SANTA ANA WASH

By Douglas M. Morton & Fred K. Miller
U. S. Geological Survey
Menlo Park, California 94025

ABSTRACT

The San Andreas fault zone north of the City of San Bernardino ranges in width from a few hundred metres to 1.5 km and consists of branching and anastomosing faults. Physiographic expressions of recent surface fault displacement abound throughout the length of this segment. Midway in this segment the zone bifurcates southeastward into the north and south branches of the San Andreas.

Urban expansion of San Bernardino is extending northward into and across the San Andreas fault zone. This development should take into consideration the numerous faults within the zone as well as the potential for secondary effects of earthquakes such as landsliding, ground rupture, and ground lurching.

INTRODUCTION

The San Andreas fault zone is located in the path of urban expansion on the north side of the City of San Bernardino. This southern California area is the only part of the San Andreas fault zone south of the San Francisco Peninsula that is immediately in the path of current urbanization.

In the San Bernardino area the San Andreas fault zone consists of two major strands and bound the upper Santa Ana Valley and the south front of the San Bernardino Mountains. The juncture of these strands is an area of moderate relief, which is considered by many developers as desirable for building sites above the valley floor. This report summarizes the geology of a 38-km segment of the San Andreas fault zone north of San Bernardino between Cajon Canyon on the northwest and Santa Ana

Wash on the southeast.

Unlike the San Andreas zone to the northwest, where numerous minor physiographic fault features are observable and mappable (Barrows, this volume), heavy vegetation and landslides obscure most of the minor fault features.

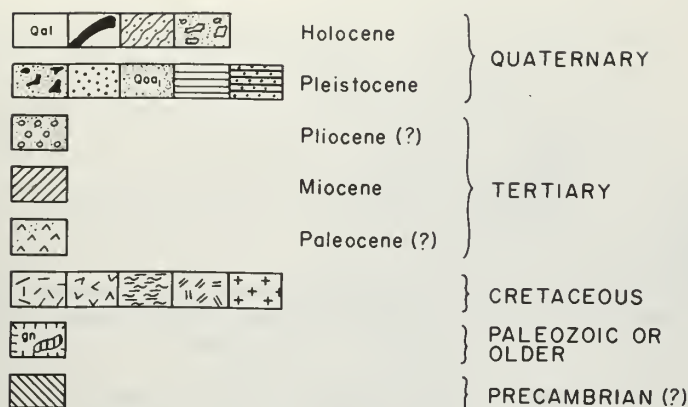
GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE FAULT

This segment of the San Andreas fault zone consists of multiple faults constituting a zone generally 500 to 1,000 wide (Fig. 1b-g). In general, the southern part of the zone contains geomorphic evidence of the most recent surface fault displacement. The trace of the most youthful breaks is marked by scarps, sag ponds, and right-lateral offset drainage courses. At several localities multiple breaks occur across the width of the fault zone, all having physiographic expression of recent surface displacement.

Throughout the length of this segment of the fault zone, a number of faults splay eastward into the mountains (Fig. 1c-e), and a few splay southward into the valley area (Fig. 1c). Near the northwest end of the map area (Fig. 1) is the confluence of the Punchbowl fault (probably an ancient strand of the San Andreas) and the San Andreas fault. Near the middle of the map area (Fig. 1) the zone bifurcates into two major zones--the north branch of the San Andreas (Mission Creek fault of Vaughan, 1922; Mill Creek fault of Allen, 1957) and the south branch (Dibblee, 1970, and this volume).









In addition to the splaying faults several faults are oriented at small

CORRELATION OF MAP UNITS



DESCRIPTION OF MAP UNITS

- | | |
|--|---|
| | Alluvium; boulders in major stream channels |
| | Artificial fill; compacted and uncompacted |
| | Fill; colluvium, colluvial debris and slopewash |
| | Major landslide deposits |
| | Older landslide deposits; dissected deposits |
| | Older alluvium, undivided; deposits of dissected unconsolidated to consolidated older alluvium |
| | Locally divided onto: |
| | Unit 1; extensive fanglomerate along mountain front and extending up canyons. Consists of nearly planar, slightly dissected alluvial surfaces underlain by unconsolidated boulderly fanglomerate. |
| | Unit 2; mainly older alluvial deposits of different ages along canyon sides above present level of deposition. Erosional surfaces developed on much of it. |
| | Unit 3; highly oxidized reddish older alluvium, moderately indurated. Occurs as isolated patches along mountain front. |
| | Nonmarine conglomerate and sandstone; includes maroon sandstone and conglomerate, brown gypsiferous fine-grained sandstone and siltstone and cream to tan arkose and arkosic sandstone in the Devore and Waterman Canyon areas, and tan, pink and dark-greenish-brown sandstone and conglomerate in the vicinity of and east of City Creek. |
| | Punchbowl and Vaqueros(?) Formations of Woodburne and Golz (1972) Well indurated gray to pink arkosic sandstone and conglomerate. |
| | San Francisquito(?) Formation of Woodburne and Golz (1972) Basal conglomerate of locally derived detritus overlain by well-bedded brown marine(?) sandstone and a few thick conglomerate beds |

-  Granitic rock, undivided, quartz diorite to quartz monzonite of variable texture and structure.
- Locally divided into:
-  Biotite quartz monzonite; mainly massive leucocratic, equigranular biotite quartz monzonite; locally porphyritic
-  Granodiorite, hornblende-biotite rich, slightly foliated and equigranular.
-  Hornblende-biotite granodiorite; locally porphyritic.
-  Quartz monzonite. Porphyritic biotite with large ($\pm 2.5 - 5$ cm) pink feldspar crystals.
-  Gneiss and granitic rocks; biotite-bearing gneiss with varying amounts of foliated to massive granitic rocks ranging from quartz diorite to quartz monzonite. Locally includes lenses of coarse-grained morble ()
-  Pelona Schist; highly deformed greenschist, facies schist. Mainly spotted white mica-albite-quartz schist, chlorite schist and impure quartzite.

SYMBOLS USED








-  Contact
-  Fault showing dip. Solid where accurately located; dashed where approximately located or inferred; dotted where concealed
-  Strike and dip of bedding
-  Strike and dip of overturned bedding
-  Strike and dip of foliation
-  Strike and dip of vertical foliation
-  Direction of landslide movement

Fig. 1a.

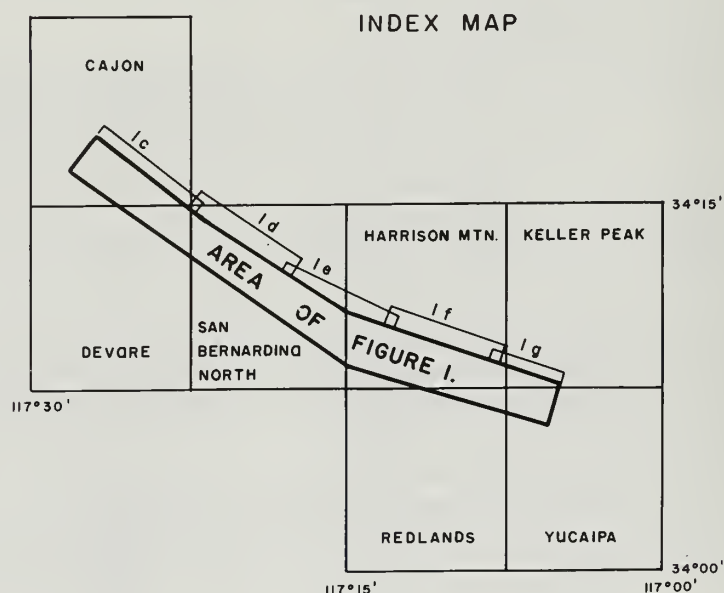


Fig. 1b.

Fig. 1c-Ig. GENERALIZED GEOLOGIC MAP OF THE SAN ANDREAS FAULT ZONE NORTH OF SAN BERNARDINO.

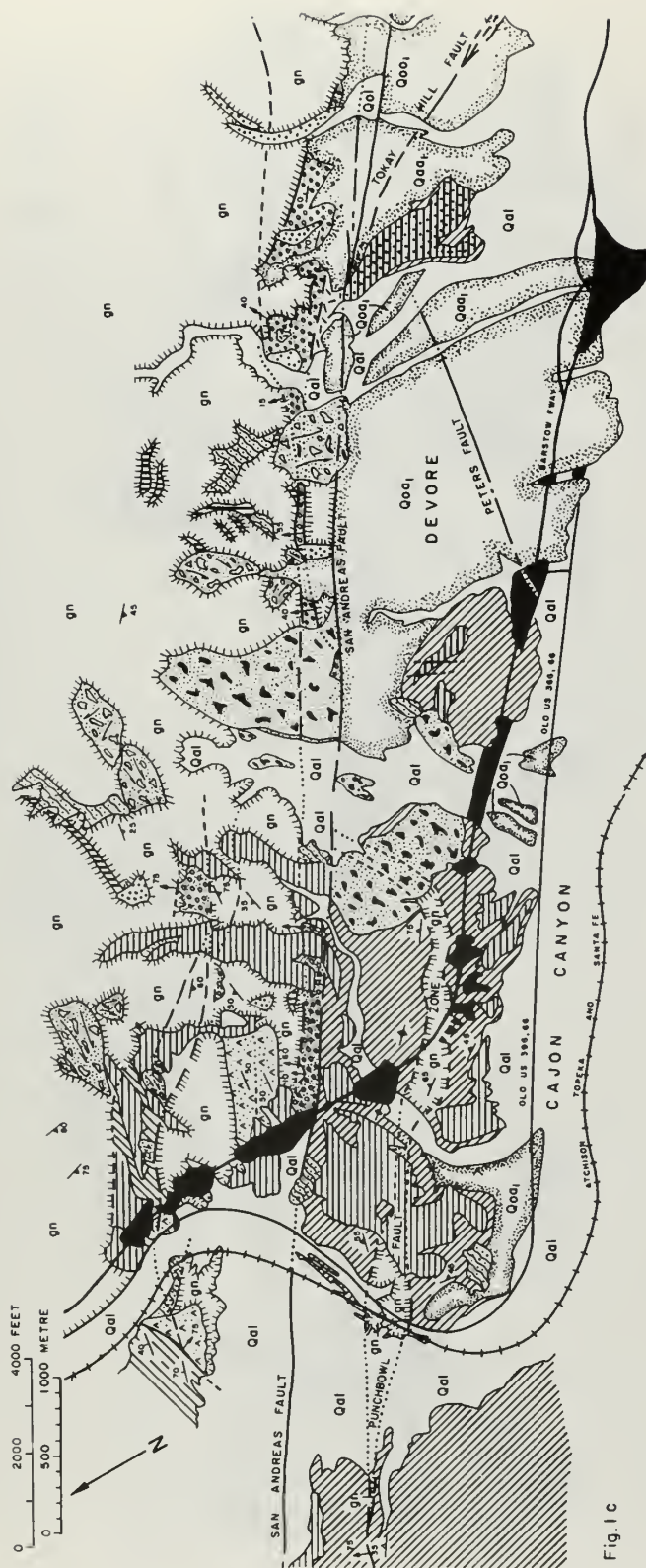


Fig. 1c

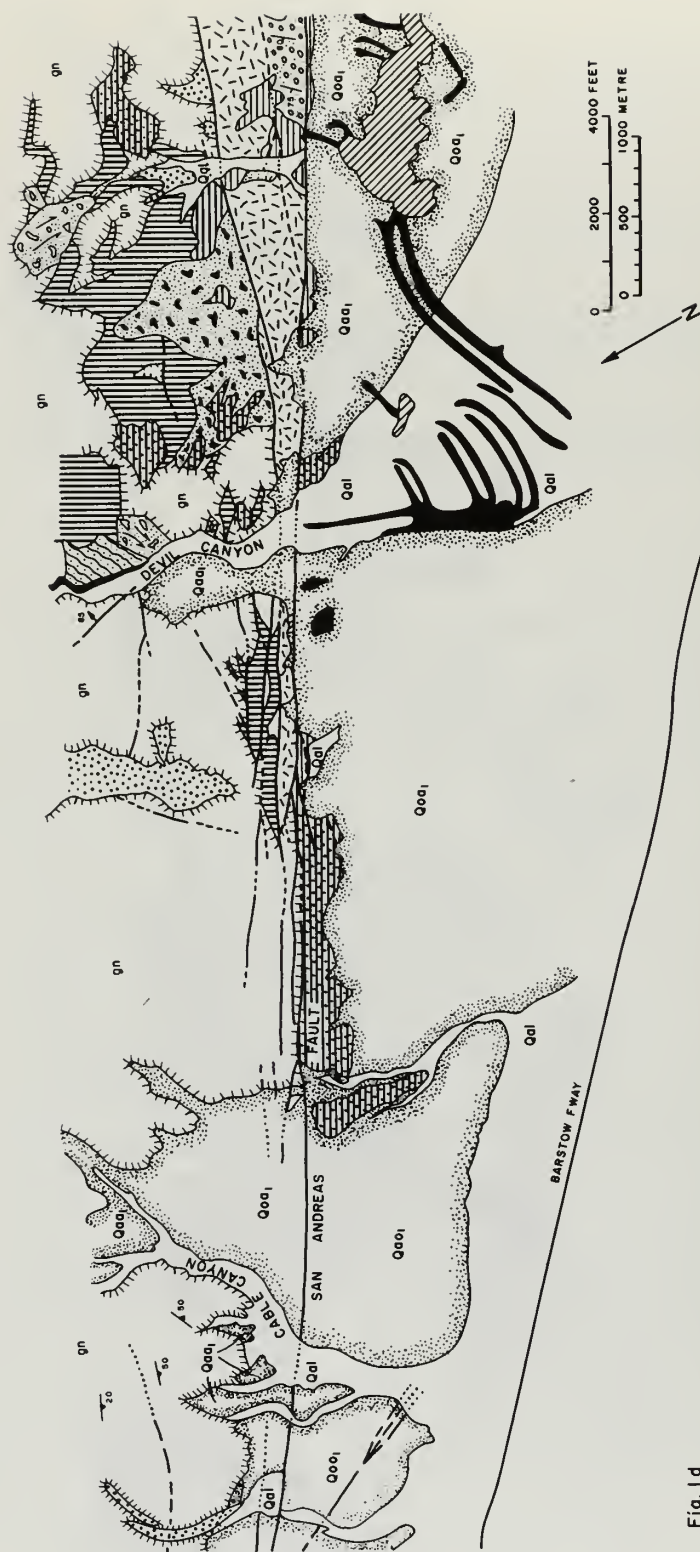


Fig. 1d



Fig 1e



Fig. 1f

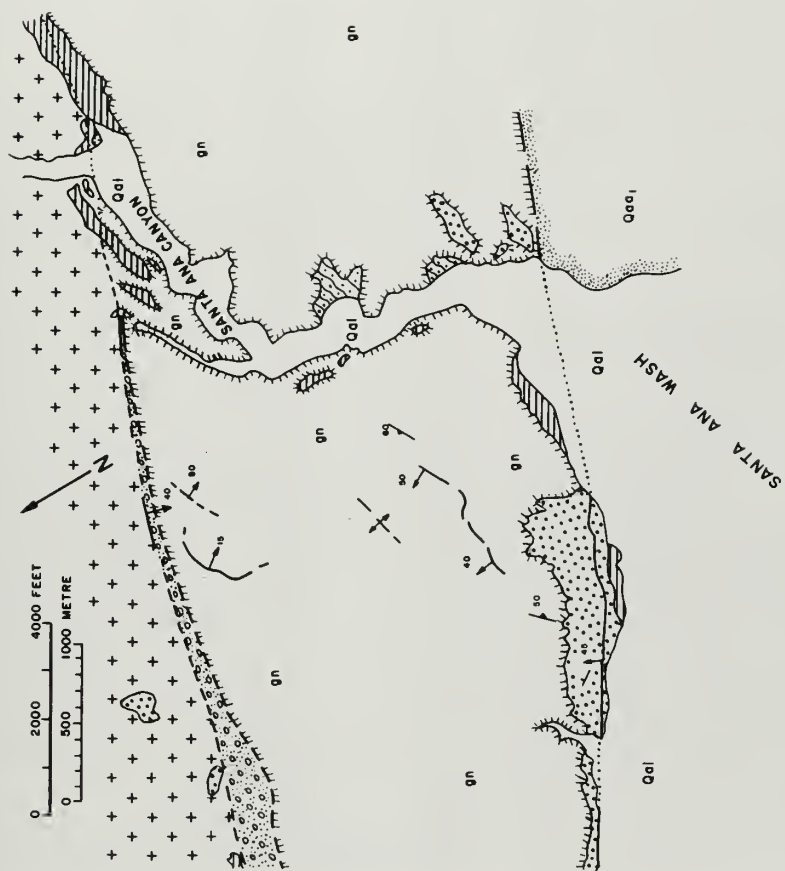


Fig. 1g

high angles to the San Andreas (Fig. 1c). These faults occur both within and adjacent to the fault zone, and some of these also show evidence of recent surface displacement.

The San Andreas fault zone juxtaposes unlike basement rock types (see Dibblee, this volume) and contains remnants of once extensive Tertiary clastic sedimentary rock units and widespread older alluvial deposits.

SOME FEATURES OF THE FAULT ZONE

In the vicinity of Cajon Canyon (Fig. 1b), at the northwestern end of this segment of the fault, a wide variety of sedimentary clastic rocks occur as fault slices over a 1.5-km width (for a description of these rocks see Woodburne, this volume, and Woodburne and Golz, 1972, the nomenclature and age assignments of which are used herein). Here the sedimentary units include the Paleocene San Francisquito (?) Formation, the Miocene Vaqueros (?) and Punchbowl Formations (Woodburne and Golz, 1972), and unnamed clastic rocks. In this area the broad shear zone of the Punchbowl fault (up to a 300-m width of deformed gneiss and chloritic quartz diorite within the Pelona Schist) approaches the San Andreas and passes beneath the cover of an older landslide deposit at the inferred point of juncture (Fig. 1c). This older landslide deposit, well exposed on new freeway cuts (Barstow Freeway, U.S. 66, 395), has been right laterally offset at least several hundred metres by the San Andreas.

Three km southeast of where old U.S. 66, 395 crosses the San Andreas, the fault zone narrows to less than 1 km and the most deformed rock occurs in a zone 300 m wide. Typically the northern faults of the zone dip northward into the mountains at moderate to low angles with basement rock thrust over sedimentary units (Fig. 1c).

To what extent these low dips can be attributed to the effects of gravity is unclear, but a reverse or thrust component of faulting is likely.

In the Devore area faults splay from the San Andreas zone both to the east into the mountains and southerly toward the valley (Tokay Hill fault Fig. 1c). Located here is the east-striking Peter fault (Noble, 1954) which forms a north-facing scarp. Two faults that offset older alluvium are oriented normal to the San Andreas northwest of the Peter fault.

West of Waterman Canyon another major splay of the San Andreas passes eastward through the vicinity of Arrowhead Springs (Fig. 1d, 1e). This fault has been mapped for 45 km eastward within the mountains (Dibblee, 1970). Further west, 2 km west of Devil Canyon, the fault zone consists of an anastomosing complex with a 500-m width. The fault zone bifurcates 1.5 km east of Devil Canyon into the north and south branches (Fig. 1d). The two branches remain nearly parallel to the point where they cross City Creek (Fig. 1f) a distance of 13.5 km, east of which the two branches diverge. Except for the westernmost 1 km, sedimentary rocks lie between the two branches eastward to the vicinity of City Creek. Eastward from City Creek the width of sedimentary rocks progressively narrows (Fig. 1f, 1g). The rocks are bounded on the north by the north branch and on the south by an unnamed fault that approaches the north branch near Plunge Creek and joins it at Santa Ana Wash.

West of the City Creek both branches of the San Andreas fault have nearly continuous expression of primary surface fault features (Fig. 2). East from City Creek, however, only the south branch shows primary surface fault features, although the north branch is well marked by the septum of included sedimentary rock. On both sides of City Creek urban developments are



Figure 2. View looking northwest along the San Andreas fault zone, north of San Bernardino. In the near foreground suburban development is extending across the scarps of the south branch of the San Andreas. In the background is the city of San Bernardino which extends onto the San Andreas fault zone. Scarps of the north branch of the San Andreas are located in the upper right corner and approach the south branch in the background. "See photo page 98"

rapidly obliterating or modifying some of the most spectacular scarps of this segment of the San Andreas fault (Fig. 2).

Landslides of various sizes occur throughout the length of the fault zone. Probably many of the larger landslides probably originated during earthquakes.

East of City Creek widespread dirt-filled fractures, extending to depths of 3 to 6 m beneath the surface, are locally seen in the crystalline rocks between the north and south branches. These cracks, oriented subnormal to the length of the ridges on which they occur, probably resulted from ground failures during past earthquakes. Thus, the process of secondary ground rupture between the two branches of the San Andreas poses a potential problem for future development.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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EN ECHELON FAULT PATTERNS OF THE SAN JACINTO FAULT ZONE

bert V. Sharp
S. Geological Survey
nlo Park, California 94025

ACT

San Jacinto fault zone of southern California forms several en echelon fault strands among its member strands. The Helen-Claremont and Claremont-Casa Loma fault pairs probably define zones of low crustal extension or elongation within the San Bernardino and San Jacinto basins, respectively. The Clark and Coyote Creek faults between Anza and Borrego valleys bound a complex zone of cross faulting within which right slip on the Clark fault has been transferred by extension to the latter. Exposure of the center of extension may be unique to the San Andreas system.

DUCTION

The San Andreas fault zone is straight and continuous throughout much of its length in California, and these characteristics are generally recognized as hallmarks of steeply dipping strike-slip faults throughout the world. However, Wallace (1973) has emphasized that the effects of most recent movement on the San Andreas fault are commonly discontinuous. In en echelon strands, the longest of which are about 10-18 km. The overlap of en echelon strands are usually a fraction of a kilometer apart.

The San Jacinto fault zone, however, contrasts strongly with the San Andreas fault zone with respect to the continuity

of its strands, despite the fact that the zone as a whole is fairly linear. Not only are en echelon fault relations more numerous along the San Jacinto fault zone, but also the length of individual strands arranged in en echelon pairs and the distance between the overlapping elements are both much larger than those described along the San Andreas. This paper concerns the pattern of en echelon faulting within the San Jacinto fault zone and describes several important relations of en echelon faulting that are not well illustrated elsewhere in the San Andreas system.

The traces of fault strands now recognized in the San Jacinto fault zone are shown in Figure 1. Because no single break appears to be clearly dominant or even continuous for the entire length of the zone, the different strands termed San Jacinto fault in many previous publications have been renamed as shown in the figure, and the name "San Jacinto" is herein applied only to the zone as a whole (Sharp, 1972).

EN ECHELON FAULT PATTERNS

Figure 2 portrays the relation of two right-slip fault strands that overlap to the right in an en echelon pattern. The overlap zone, defined by the fault traces and the dashed lines, represents an area of the earth's surface undergoing crustal extension or elongation parallel to the main faults (see arrows at the ends of

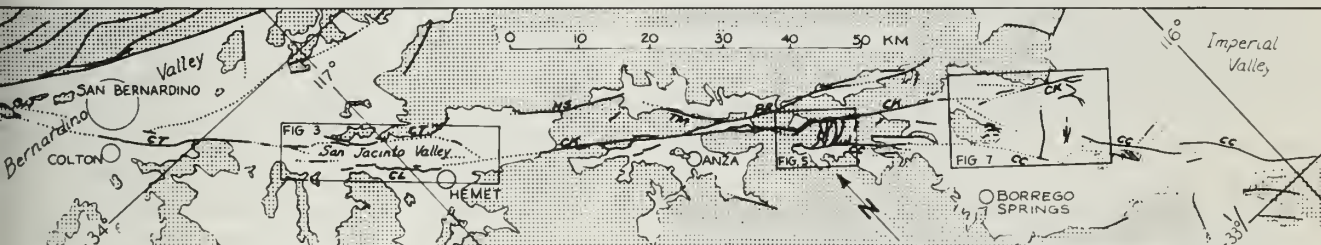


Fig. 1. San Jacinto fault zone from San Bernardino Valley to western Imperial Valley. Faults shown by heavy lines, dotted where concealed. Main fault members of zone: GH, Glen Helen; CT, Claremont; CL, Casa Loma; HS, Hot Springs; CK, Clark; TM, Thomas Mountain; BR, Buck Ridge; CC, Coyote Creek. Stippled area: Mesozoic and older crystalline rocks; unstippled area: Tertiary and Quaternary sedimentary rocks and alluvium.

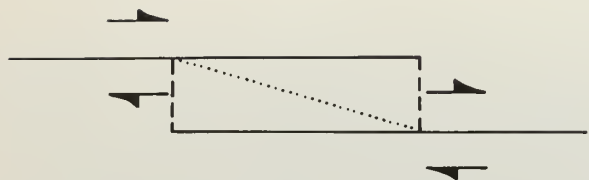


Figure 2. Diagram of overlapping en echelon faults. Solid lines are fault traces, dashed lines bound area of overlap, dotted line shows possible orientation of single fault at depth. Arrows show direction of relative movement.

the extensional area). This elongation and indeed the en echelon pattern itself may exist only in the shallow part of the earth's crust. At depths perhaps no greater than a few multiples of the surface distance between the en echelon breaks, the faults may converge downward into a single fault (represented in Fig. 2 by the dotted line diagonally crossing the area of elongation). The en echelon fault pattern therefore may be only a surface expression of a change in trend of the fault zone at depth to a direction more nearly north-south than the typical north-west trend.

Three major areas of known or suspected en echelon overlap exist along the San Jacinto fault zone. The three pairs of faults forming the en echelon patterns are the Glen Helen and Claremont faults in San Bernardino Valley (Fig. 1), the Claremont and Casa Loma faults in San Jacinto Valley (Fig. 3), and the Clark and Coyote Creek faults between Anza and Borrego valleys (Figs. 5 and 6). The two northern overlaps occur in alluvial areas, and because of sparse geological data on the details of faulting below the alluvial surfaces, they are only partly understood.

Glen Helen Fault - Claremont Fault Overlap

The Claremont fault is clearly the dominant trace of the San Jacinto fault zone immediately southeast of San Bernardino Valley, and surface expression of this trace is also spottily visible for about 6 km within the southern part of the valley (Sharp, 1972; Sieh and others, 1973). At

the north edge of the valley, the zone apparently includes two major strands, one nearly on line with the Claremont fault and the other, the Glen Helen fault, situated about 1.5 km to the northeast. Recent geologic mapping by D. M. Morton in the eastern San Gabriel Mountains indicates about 24 km of total right slip across the San Jacinto zone there, and this offset is divided about equally between the two strands (D. M. Morton, 1972, pers. comm.). That such large displacement must be transferred entirely to or break at the south edge of the valley suggests, among other possibilities, an en echelon overlap. The fact that the Glen Helen fault shows scarps in young alluvium whereas the Claremont fault does not at the northern edge of the valley (Sharp, 1972) further suggests that transfer of displacement by crustal extension between en echelon fault pairs might be an expected feature in this area at the time of the next major earthquake. The next episode of surface movement may resolve whether there is simple bending or branching of the major trace to an unusual north-south trend or whether an overlapping en echelon fault relation exists.

Claremont Fault - Casa Loma Fault Overlap

The fault pattern within San Jacinto Valley seems to be a classic example of an en echelon fault strands stepped to the right within a right-slip fault zone. Figure 3 shows the linear graben-like structure

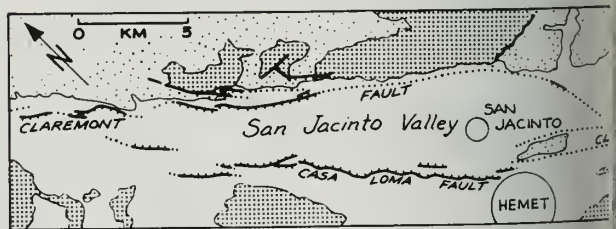


Figure 3. Fault pattern in San Jacinto Valley. Heavy lines are faults, hachures on downthrown sides. Dark stipple: Mesozoic and older crystalline rocks. Light stipple: Pliocene and Pleistocene continental sedimentary rocks. Unstippled areas: Quaternary alluvium. Location shown in Figure 1.

San Jacinto Valley, bounded on the north by the Claremont fault and transected by the nearly parallel Casa Loma fault 3-5 km to the southwest. Although the trace of the latter fault is sinuous and has been interpreted as a normal fault (Proc. 1962), it does lie along the projection of the Clark fault which is clearly a major right-slip fault strand within 1 km to the southeast (Sharp, 1967). The 24 km total right-lateral displacement established for the San Jacinto fault zone (Sharp, 1967) is transferred to the Clark fault to the Claremont zone. This is not obvious because of concealment by alluvial cover on the floor of the valley. Although other now-concealed zones of distributed lateral slip may have absorbed the displacement, some lateral movement along the general trend of the Casa Loma fault may also have occurred prior to the vertical offset of the valley floor. Near the surface, lateral displacement on the bounding faults probably has been transferred into northwest-southeast crustal extension by normal faulting under the ridge for the length of the fault overlap, a distance comparable to the 24 km total lateral offset for the fault zone. The transfer of concealed subsidiary fractures within the en echelon overlap may not be known in detail, but it is interesting to compare a similar fault pattern to the right-slip Hope fault in New Zealand (Clayton, 1966) shown in Figure 4.

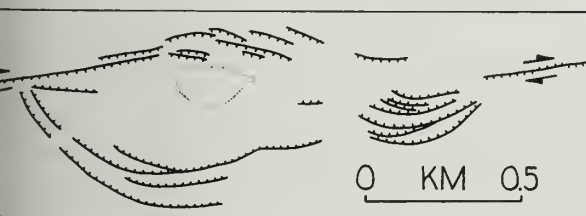


Figure 4. Fault pattern on the Hope fault, New Zealand. Heavy lines are fault scarps, hachures on downthrown blocks. Dotted line is outline of lake at bottom of central depression. Adapted from Clayton (1966).

The Hope fault analog is situated in alluvial outwash terrace deposits near the River, South Island, and the fault

scarps have not been disturbed by younger alluviation since their formation. The analog suggests that the two relatively simple lateral shears break up into broad zones of multiple curving fault strands that converge on the opposite member of the en echelon pair. Although the dimensions of the New Zealand example are a little smaller, it is possible that a similar type of fracture pattern exists in the subsurface in San Jacinto Valley.

Clark Fault - Coyote Creek Fault Overlap

The overlap zone between the Clark and Coyote Creek faults is well exposed on the mountain ridge immediately northeast of Coyote Canyon (Fig. 5). Not only do fault

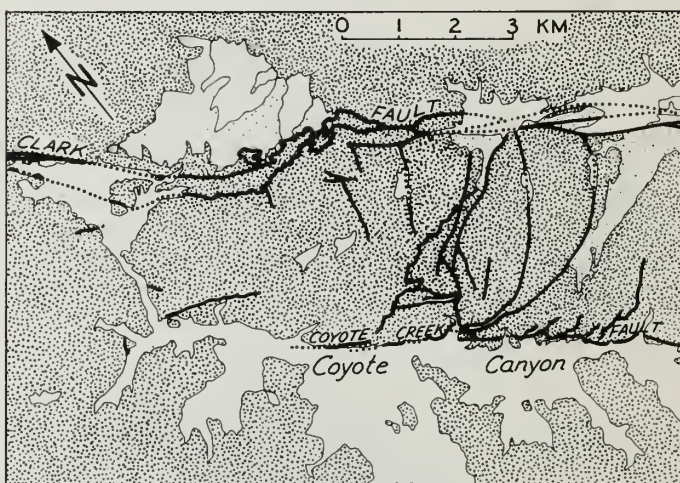


Figure 5. Fault pattern at northwest end of Coyote Creek fault. Heavy lines are faults. Location shown in Figure 1. Stippled areas same as in Figure 2.

relations on this ridge offer evidence for transfer of displacement between these major strands of the fault zone, but the ridge also reveals what may be a unique exposure of a crustal extensional zone between en echelon fault elements in the San Andreas system.

From the Coyote Creek fault near its northwest termination (Fig. 5), a complex group of strongly curved but generally northeast-trending faults extends across the ridge to the Clark fault. Movement within this group of cross-connecting fractures has allowed some of the right-

lateral displacement on the Clark fault to be transferred by crustal extension to the Coyote Creek fault 4 km to the southwest. The amount of northwest-southeast crustal elongation probably has not exceeded about 2.5 km, the amount of net right slip on the northern part of the Coyote Creek fault (Sharp, 1967). In addition to the displacement on the large number of mapped breaks within the extensional zone, a large proportion of the total elongation may be distributed throughout the volume of rock involved, which is pervasively and intensely brecciated and sheared. Many of the faults within the extensional zone are doubly curved - that is, they curve both in strike and dip. At high elevations the breaks are mostly steeply-dipping normal and reverse faults, but the dips progressively flatten at lower elevations, and the structures become shallow-dipping normal faults. The curvature is convex to the southeast.

The probable net movement on the faults within the extensional zone and the bounding major faults is illustrated diagrammatically in Figure 6. From side to side

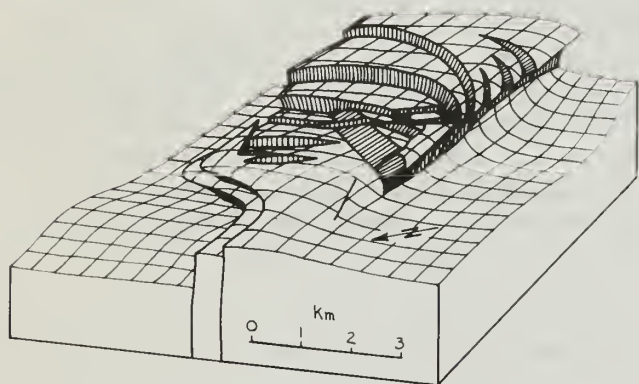


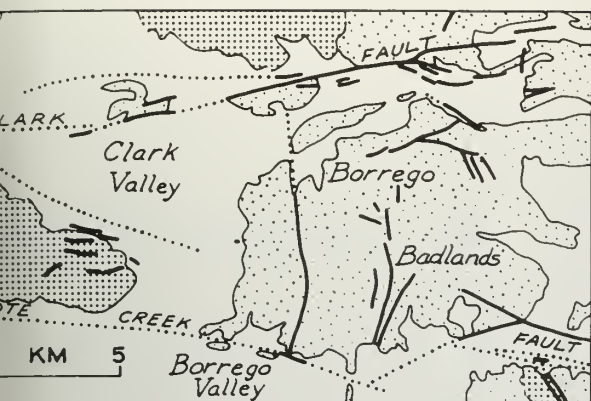
Figure 6. Diagrammatic sketch of crustal extensional zone between Clark and Coyote Creek faults. Location same as Figure 4. Clark fault cuts block on left, Coyote Creek fault on right. Fault surfaces are ruled with single direction (downdip) lines. An artificial reference surface ruled in two directions represents an originally horizontal surface now offset by faults and locally warped. Throw on individual faults is diagrammatic.

in the diagram, rocks between the bounding faults are raised with respect to the outer blocks. From front to rear in the diagram, rocks generally rise stepwise across the extensional zone to the high level on the southeast side. The unique aspect of this zone of crustal extension is its structural and topographic elevation relative to the surrounding areas. Generally, extensional zones between en echelon faults, such as the San Jacinto Valley example cited above and the deep linear basins in the Gulf of California (Rusnak and others, 1964), are marked by structural depressions and are filled with a large volume of alluvium.

The en echelon pattern of the Coyote Creek and Clark faults separated by a zone of crustal elongation resembles the geometry proposed for crustal spreading centers between transform faults in oceanic basins. However, to label the Clark fault a transform fault with respect to the zone of crustal elongation would be somewhat inappropriate because the fault continues southeastward at least 40 km beyond the point of apparent spreading. Furthermore, whether the two en echelon faults remain separate at depths as great as the base of the crust is unknown. Divergence in strike of the two faults suggests that they probably become separate breaks at that depth farther to the southeast, but it is highly probable that the extension described in this example is intracrustal.

FAULT PATTERN NEAR CLARK VALLEY

The fault pattern and distribution of displacement between the Clark and Coyote Creek faults near Clark Valley (Fig. 7) show some features in common with the examples of en echelon faulting discussed above. Northwest of Clark Valley the Clark fault clearly has been the dominant fracture in the San Jacinto fault zone (Sharp, 1967), but to the south the Coyote Creek fault apparently is the most active member of the zone. Bartholomew (1970) suggested that the line of major displacement curves along the west side of Clark Valley and joins the Coyote Creek fault



7. Fault pattern near Clark Valley. Heavy lines are faults. Location shown in Figure 1. Stippled areas as in Figure 2.

outh. However, a detailed gravity near Coyote Mountain (W. J. Arabasz, unpublished data) and structural continuity of folds and faults in Borrego Badlands (Theodore and Sharp, 1975) indicate the fault on the west side of Clark Valley dies out. Thus it does not appear that displacement on the southern part of the Clark fault is transferred to the southern Coyote Creek fault by any connection of fault branches.

Crustal spreading seemingly could offer an explanation of apparent fault dominance north and south of Clark Valley. The Clark fault and the Coyote Creek fault could be another extensional zone of the type described for the same faults to the northwest, then conceivably all lateral displacement could be transferred from the Clark fault to a center of crustal elongation located within or under the Borrego Badlands. However, geologic structure in the badlands indicates compressional tectonics throughout this block, rather than northwest-southeast extension (Theodore and Sharp, 1975). Extensional features could be concealed in Clark Valley and in the 3-km-wide alluviated gap immediately northwest of Borrego Badlands, but the total amount of elongation there would only be a small fraction of the net displacement on the Clark fault. Unless the rocks exposed at the surface in the badlands are eroded in some manner from the under-

lying crystalline basement, significant crustal extension does not seem to be applicable to this region.

Recent geologic mapping along the southeastern part of the Clark fault indicates that complex branching and "horsetailing" into multiple strands are common. In addition to the great complexity of fault relations, fold structures are intimately involved in the total deformation in that area. Mapping now underway will attempt to define the southeastward fate of the large displacement on the Clark fault.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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SECTION 3

ajon Pass to Tejon Pass



to 4. San Andreas fault zone at Little Rock Creek, southeast of Palmdale, looking southeast. Mt. Emma Road in foreground; California aqueduct to left (northeast). Note offset streams, fault scarps, and fault ridges. J. S. Shelton Photograph No. 6855, 24 Nov. 1974, 8500 ft. elevation.



Photo 5. Looking east at deformed Pliocene beds of Anaverde Formation within the San Andreas fault zone. The active fault today crosses the freeway adjacent to the roadcut on the right (south, just out of the photo).
Air photograph by W. Roy Watson, 1972



Photo 6. Detail from center of roadcut shown in photo 1. Note that the ground surface is apparently displaced by this "active" fault, and that a small graben (skyline) has resulted. Photograph by Richard G. Shaw, 1971

TECTONICS OF THE WESTERN MOJAVE DESERT NEAR THE SAN ANDREAS FAULT

Thomas W. Dibblee, Jr.
U.S. Geological Survey
Palmdale Park, California 94025

ABSTRACT

The western Mojave Desert near the San Andreas fault is largely an alluviated plain underlain by Mesozoic granitic rocks. Gravity data reveal three east-trending basins of Cenozoic volcanic and sedimentary rocks on down-dip parts of the granitic surface, separated by two gravity highs with scattered outcrops of granitic rocks. The northern and eastern basins each expose about 2670 m (8,000 ft) of Cenozoic deposits near the San Andreas fault. Tectonic movements that formed these basins in large part ceased probably in the Pleistocene time within the desert and are continuing along its margins in the form of uplift by lateral drag movements along the San Andreas and Garlock fault zones.

INTRODUCTION

This report summarizes the regional geology of the western Mojave Desert and near the 140 km (90 mi) segment of the San Andreas fault from Quail Lake (Gorman) to Cajon Pass, primarily from the author's own mapping and interpretations recorded in earlier reports and regional maps (Dibblee, 1967, 1968, 1969). References to more detailed geologic maps are listed therein and in the Los Angeles and San Bernardino Sheets of the Geologic Map of California (Graham and Strand, 1969; Rogers, 1969).

GEOLOGIC SETTING AND MAJOR ROCK UNITS

The western Mojave Desert is a high, alluviated plain that slopes northward from the mountains elevated along the San Andreas fault at its southwestern border southeastward from the Tehachapi Mountains elevated along the Garlock fault at its northwestern border. The major rock divisions of the western Mojave Desert are: (1) pre-Tertiary

crystalline basement complex of plutonic and metamorphic rocks, (2) Tertiary volcanic and sedimentary rocks, and (3) Quaternary alluvial deposits.

The pre-Tertiary basement complex is a granitic batholith of predominantly quartz monzonite-granodiorite composition of Mesozoic (Cretaceous) age. It is largely buried under the desert plain but crops out at Antelope Butte, Alpine and Lovejoy Buttes and vicinity, and along the margins elevated near the San Andreas and Garlock faults (figs. 1, 2).

In the Tehachapi Mountains (fig. 1) the batholithic rocks contain fragments of metasedimentary rocks of Paleozoic(?) age. In the Table Mountain area near the San Andreas fault (fig. 2) the batholithic rocks are intrusive into north-dipping marble-bearing gneiss (Precambrian?). Portal Ridge on the north side of the San Andreas fault west of Palmdale (fig. 1) is eroded from a narrow slice of Pelona Schist (Mesozoic or older).

The granitic batholith that underlies the western Mojave Desert is juxtaposed along the San Andreas fault against a basement complex to the south composed of Precambrian gneissic rocks intruded by a variety of plutonic rocks of Precambrian to Cretaceous age. All these rock units are separated by an interval of mylonite from, and may be allochthonous to, the structurally underlying Pelona Schist that is anticlinally folded near the San Andreas fault (figs. 1, 2).

The deeply eroded surface of the granitic batholith of the western Mojave Desert near the San Andreas fault is overlain by a sequence of volcanic and terrestrial sedimentary rocks of middle and late Tertiary age. In areas where this surface was downwarped this sequence is very thick. Where exposed, this sequence is deformed, especially near the San Andreas fault; elsewhere it is covered by Quaternary alluvial deposits, which in most parts lap unconformably over this sequence onto the granitic bedrock of the

elevated areas. The Tertiary rocks are exposed mainly in three areas (figs. 1, 2) as follows (Dibblee, 1967):

1. In the west Antelope Valley area (figs. 1, 3), the lower part of the sequence is a rhyolitic and andesitic volcanic unit (Neenach Volcanic Formation, Oligocene(?) and early Miocene) overlain by a terrestrial sedimentary unit as thick as 1,600 m (5,000 ft) of granitic and volcanic detritus (Oso Canyon Formation, Late Miocene). This terrestrial unit overlies a marine facies of sandstone and shale (Quail Lake Formation) only in the western part of this area. The terrestrial and volcanic rocks of this sequence, which accumulated in an extensive basin, are probably continuous under west Antelope Valley to exposures in Antelope Buttes and the Rosamond Hills. This is the only basin in the western Mojave Desert near the San Andreas fault known to contain volcanic rocks.

2. In a strip about 45 km (30 mi) long between the San Andreas fault and the unnamed parallel fault less than 1 km (1 mi) north (figs. 1, 2), the sequence (Anaverde Formation, Pliocene, described elsewhere in this volume) may be as thick as 660 m (2,000 ft) and is composed of terrestrial strata of granitic detritus, with lacustrine clays and gypsum in the upper part.

3. In the Cajon Pass area (fig. 2), the lowest Tertiary unit is a small remnant of a highly indurated marine sedimentary formation, (Paleocene?). The remainder is a sequence as thick as 2,300 m (7,000 ft) of terrestrial strata of Miocene and Pliocene age that includes at the base a thin marine lens (Vaqueros Formation, early Miocene). See Woodburne, this volume, for a detailed description of these units.

Quaternary alluvial sediments that cover the western Mojave Desert near the San Andreas fault were derived primarily from the mountains across south of the fault and deposited as a northward-sloping alluvial apron, which is highest and coarsest near the high eastern part of the San Gabriel Mountains (fig. 1). At Cajon Pass the highest part of this

alluvial apron, where the Pleistocene gravels of this apron were elevated and tilted slightly northward, was removed by headward erosion of the southward-draining system of Cajon Creek.

REGIONAL GEOLOGIC STRUCTURE

The isolated low hills and buttes of granitic rocks, such as Antelope Butte (fig. 1) and Alpine and Lovejoy Buttes (fig. 2) within the western Mojave Desert plain, are remnants of probably once mountainous terranes of granitic rocks elevated in late Tertiary or early Quaternary time, and subsequently reduced to low relief or peneplaned. The large intervening alluviated areas are probably structural basins or downwarps of Cenozoic sedimentary deposits, as indicated by regional geophysical survey (Mabey, 1960). During late Quaternary time this desert region appears to have been in large part stabilized, but the margins adjacent to the San Andreas and Garlock faults (figs. 1, 2) continued to be affected by crustal movements to form low mountains or hills by faulting, arching, and tilting, presumably as lateral drag effect on the San Andreas and Garlock faults, which exposed the basement and overlying Tertiary rocks.

A gravity survey of the western Mojave Desert indicates that north of the San Andreas fault this desert plain contains three large basins filled with low-density sedimentary and volcanic rocks to estimated depths of about 3,300 m (10,000 ft) separated by areas of relatively high gravity basement rocks at or near the surface (Mabey, 1960; Dibblee, 1967, p. 111-113). The basins are elongated northeastward or eastward, parallel to the Garlock fault, and at least two of them extend to the San Andreas fault (figs. 1, 2). As shown, West Antelope basin underlies West Antelope Valley and parallels the Tehachapi Mountains to the northwest. The Tertiary sequence of this basin crops out near the San Andreas fault north of Liebre Mountain (figs. 1, 3; Dibblee, 1967, p. 61) where it is severely deformed. East Antelope basin

lands northeastward from Lancaster (fig. 1). The Tertiary(?) rocks of this area do not crop out. Cajon basin underlies the desert plain north of Cajon Pass. The Cenozoic sediments of this basin crop out on its south flank south of Cajon Pass (fig. 2; Dibblee, 1967, p. 4, Woodburne, this volume), where they are much deformed.

The segment of the marginal uplift north of Antelope Valley (fig. 1) exposes granitic basement along its major strand. North of Liebre Mountain this is overlain by, and is in part thrust northward against, the 2,700 m (8,000 ft) thick middle Tertiary volcanic and sedimentary sequence of West Antelope basin; where exposed, this sequence is tightly compressed into east-trending folds (fig. 1; Dibblee, 1967, p. 59). Southeastward the granitic uplift is in contact along the Hitchcock fault with the north-dipping Pelona Schist of Portal Ridge (fig. 1). This ridge and the low granitic exposure near Palmdale and Littlerock are separated from the San Andreas fault to the south by a narrow belt of the Anaverde Formation, which is in part tightly compressed into a zone (Dibblee, 1967, p. 57).

The low granitic uplift near Palmdale and Littlerock, which terminates against the fault southeast of Pearblossom (fig. 1), is narrow in outcrop but may extend eastward under the alluvium of the desert plain to the granitic exposures of the Alpine and Lovejoy Buttes area, as indicated by gravity data (Mabey, 1960; Dibblee, 1967, p. 112).

The major marginal uplift of basement complex that includes Table Mountain on the north side of the San Andreas fault is overlain by the Crowder Formation (Miocene) and Quaternary gravel, both of which are tilted northward (fig. 2). South of Wrightwood this uplift is elevated on the Cajon Valley fault against the tilted but generally north-dipping so-called Punchbowl Formation (Miocene) of Cajon Canyon; to the northwest the Crowder Formation overlaps this fault

onto the basement complex of this uplift (fig. 2; Dibblee, 1967, p. 52, 54).

LATERAL DISPLACEMENTS ON STRANDS OF THE SAN ANDREAS FAULT SYSTEM

The San Andreas fault system that borders the western Mojave Desert bears about N 65° W and is a single active main strand marked by scarplets, small ridges, sag ponds, and offset stream channels. All these features are the effects of late Quaternary right-slip movements on this fault. Post-Oligocene cumulative right-slip of about 280 km (130 mi) has been postulated (Crowell, 1962, p. 36, 43, 44, 50) presumably on this main strand.

On the lesser inactive strands north of the main strand, the amount of strike-slip movement if any, is not known, but the vertical displacements of those that elevate basement rocks against Cenozoic deposits (figs. 1, 2) are well defined. On the now inactive Nadeau and Punchbowl faults, which are the major southern strands of the San Andreas fault system, the anticlinally folded (Pelona) schist of Blue Ridge (figs. 1, 2) may be displaced nearly 48 km (30 mi) southeastward from that of Sierra Pelona (Dibblee, 1967, p. 114; 1968, p. 264-265). The Punchbowl fault is not part of the San Jacinto fault, as commonly thought, but is a strand of the San Andreas fault that joins the main strand east of Cajon Creek.

In the Cajon Canyon area northeast of the San Andreas fault, the Paleocene(?) marine unit and the middle Tertiary Vaqueros and "Punchbowl" Formations (fig. 2) may be displaced about 150 km (95 mi) from similar rock units exposed in the Cuyama Badlands--east Caliente Range area on the southwest side of the fault (Dibblee, 1975; fig. 4).

In the west Antelope Valley area northeast of the San Andreas fault, the middle Tertiary Neenach Volcanic Formation, Quail Lake, and Oso Canyon Formations (fig. 1) may be displaced 150 to 255 km (95 to 160 mi) from similar rock units

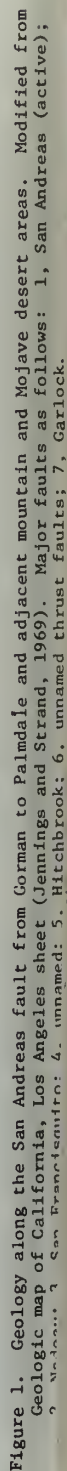


Figure 1. Geology along the San Andreas fault from Gorman to Palmdale and adjacent mountain and Mojave desert areas. Modified from Geologic map of California, Los Angeles sheet (Jennings and Strand, 1969). Major faults as follows: 1, San Andreas (active); 2, Garlock; 3, San Joaquin Hills; 4, San Gabriel; 5, Hittsbrook; 6, unnamed thrust faults; 7, Carlock.

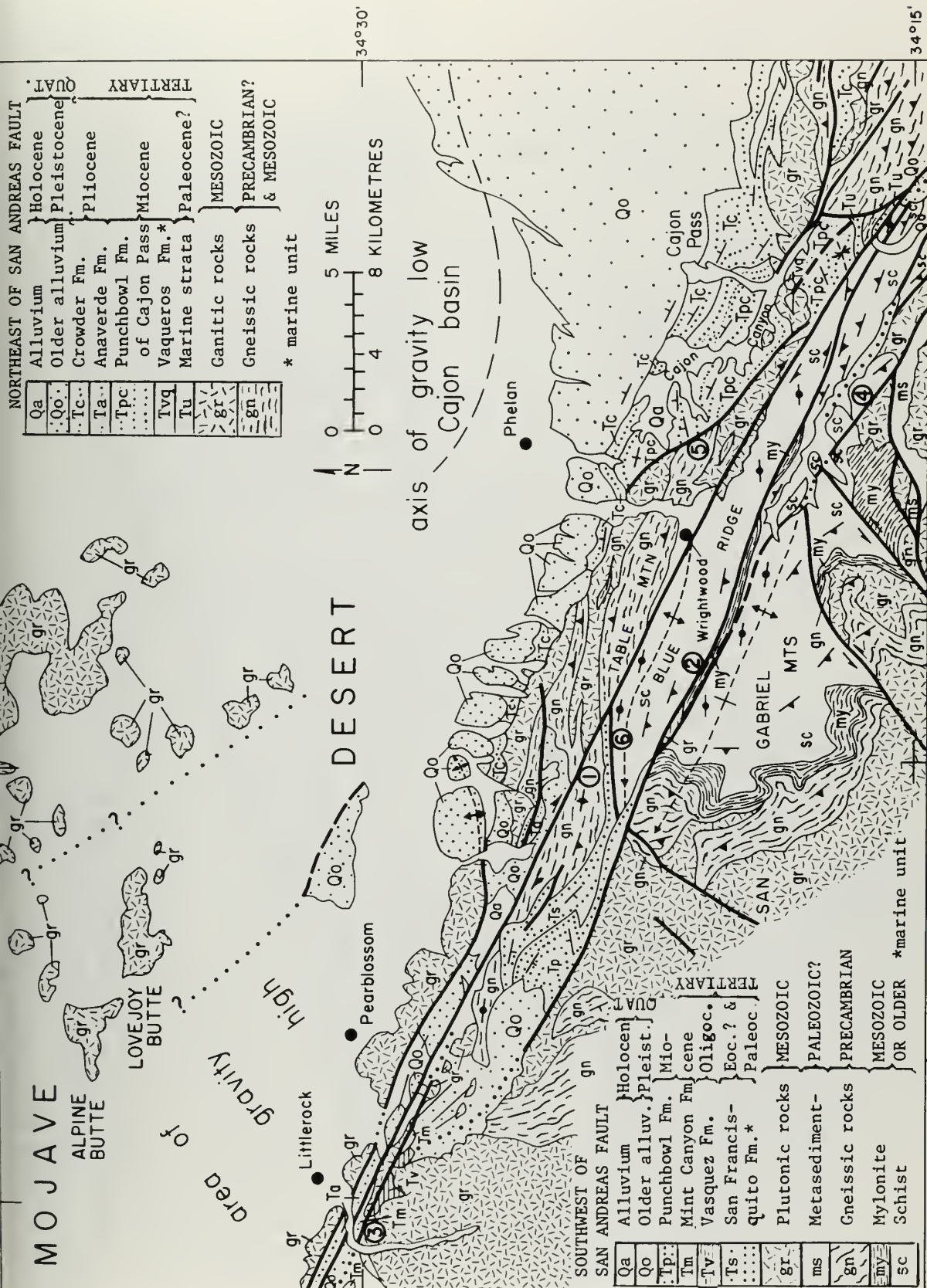


Figure 2. Geology along the San Andreas fault from Littlerock to Cajon Pass. Generalized from Dibblee (1970). Major faults as follows: 1, San Andreas (active); 2, Punchbowl; 3, Nadeau; 4, San Jacinto; 5, Cajon Valley; 6, Fenner.

between the north Carrizo Plain and the
nacles area of the Gabilan Mountains
the southwest side of the fault
oble, 1975; fig. 4).

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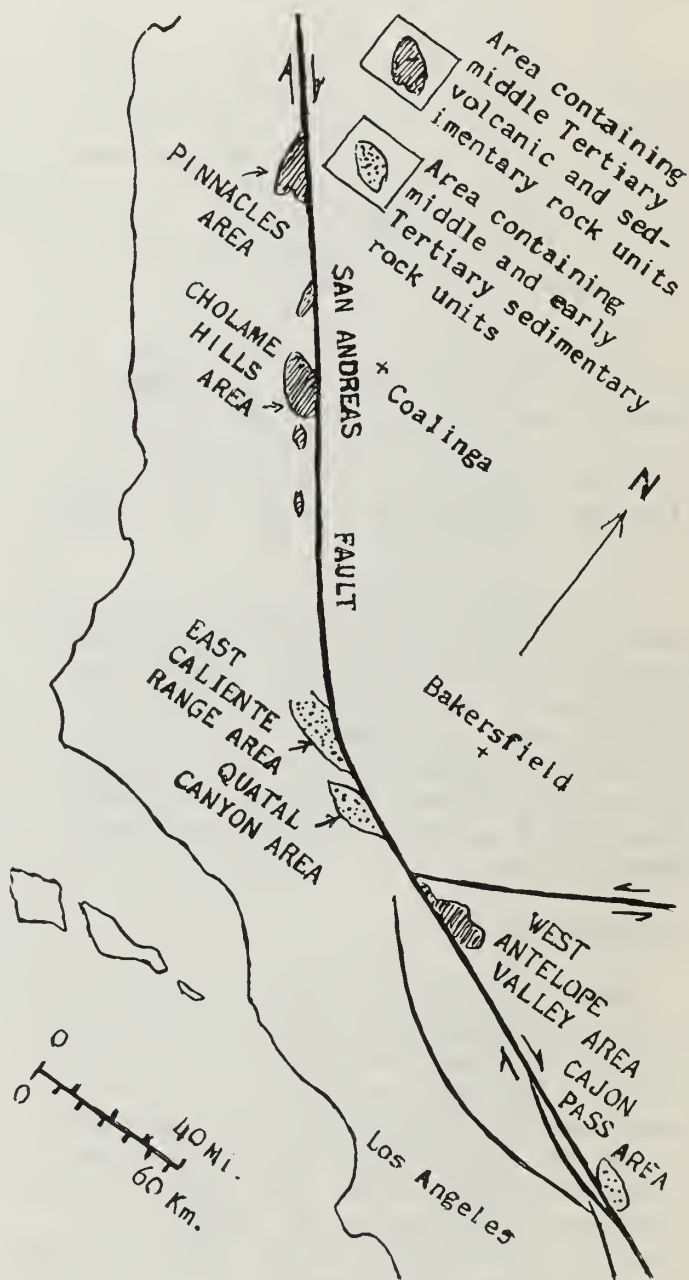


Figure 4. Areas of similar Tertiary rock
units possibly separated by large
amounts of right slip on San Andreas
fault.

SEDIMENTOLOGICAL AND TECTONIC IMPLICATIONS OF THE PALEOCENE
SAN FRANCISQUITO FORMATION, LOS ANGELES COUNTY, CALIFORNIA

By Orrin Sage, Jr.
Environmental Studies Program
University of California
Santa Barbara, California 93106

ABSTRACT

Strata of the Paleocene San Francisquito Formation exhibit sedimentologic features characteristic of 1) deposition of coarse clastic material on southwesterly trending submarine fans and 2) deposition of fine-grained clastic material by turbidity currents along a northwest-southeast trending ocean basin.

Previous workers have documented approximately 50 kilometers of movement between Sierra Pelona and Blue Ridge terrain along the Nadeau and Punchbowl faults. Similarity of Paleocene strata in the two regions also supports 50 kilometers of displacement.

The above documented offset along the Nadeau and Punchbowl faults, and Paleocene sedimentation history suggest that Paleocene or pre-Paleocene activity on the San Andreas fault system, in the central Transverse Ranges was either non-existent or of a considerably smaller magnitude than shown by offsets from late Miocene to Recent time.

INTRODUCTION

Reconstruction of the tectonic evolution of southern California is often obscured because of a lack of data. This lack of data has resulted in continuing controversy regarding total displacement along the San Andreas fault system and time of initiation of faulting. North of the Transverse Ranges of southern California, displacement along the San Andreas fault system is estimated to be about 530 kilometers, with movement beginning sometime around the Cretaceous-Tertiary transition (Wentworth, 1968). However, in southern California, total displacement is estimated to be about 300 kilometers,

beginning sometime in late Miocene time (Crowell, 1973). If a pre-Miocene San Andreas fault existed in the Transverse Range area, then study of pre-Miocene strata near the present fault system might present new data for resolving the above displacement and timing discrepancies.

Paleocene sedimentary rocks were studied in the Big Rock Creek area adjacent to Devils Punchbowl, and in the Bouquet Reservoir-Fish Canyon area, about 8.0 kilometers north of Saugus (Fig. 1). Special emphasis was placed on determining Paleocene geography and sedimentation trends in order to evaluate whether the data would aid in resolving the question of fault movement during Paleocene time in the central Transverse Ranges.

LITHOLOGY

Dibblee (1967) assigned Paleocene strata in the above localities to the San Francisquito Formation. These strata conformably overlie Precambrian (?) gneiss and are in turn overlain by Miocene sedimentary rocks (Fig. 1).

The San Francisquito Formation in the Big Rock Creek area includes breccia, shale, sandstone, and conglomerate facies (Figs. 2 and 3). The breccia facies consists of irregularly distributed cobble-to-boulder gneiss breccia resting in a deformed shale matrix along the Paleocene-Precambrian (?) unconformity on Pinyon Ridge. The shale facies comprise shale with subordinate sandstone which grades northwest into a thick-bedded sandstone facies. These facies progressively overlap underlying gneiss, forming a "butteress" unconformity along Pinyon Ridge. The conglomerate facies is best exposed in Big Rock Creek and grades northwest and southeast into the thick-bedded sandstone facies.

The San Francisquito Formation, from Bouquet Reservoir to Fish Canyon comprises shale, sandstone, and conglomerate facies.

EXPLANATION

- ① SAN ANDREAS FAULT
- ② NADEAU FAULT
- ③ PUNCHBOWL FAULT
- ④ SAN JACINTO FAULT
- ⑤ FENNER FAULT
- ⑥ SAN FRANCISCO FAULT
- ⑦ SAN GABRIEL FAULT

Q	Sediments	Quaternary
P	Sed. rocks	Pliocene
M	Sed. rocks	Miocene
φ	Sed. & volc. rx.	Oligocene
Ep	Sed. rocks	Paleocene*
gr	Granitic rx.	Mesozoic
gd	Granodiorite	Paleozoic
ms	Metased rx.	
sy	syenite	
ag	anorthosite & gabbro	
gn	gneiss	
my	mylonite	
sc	schist	Precambrian

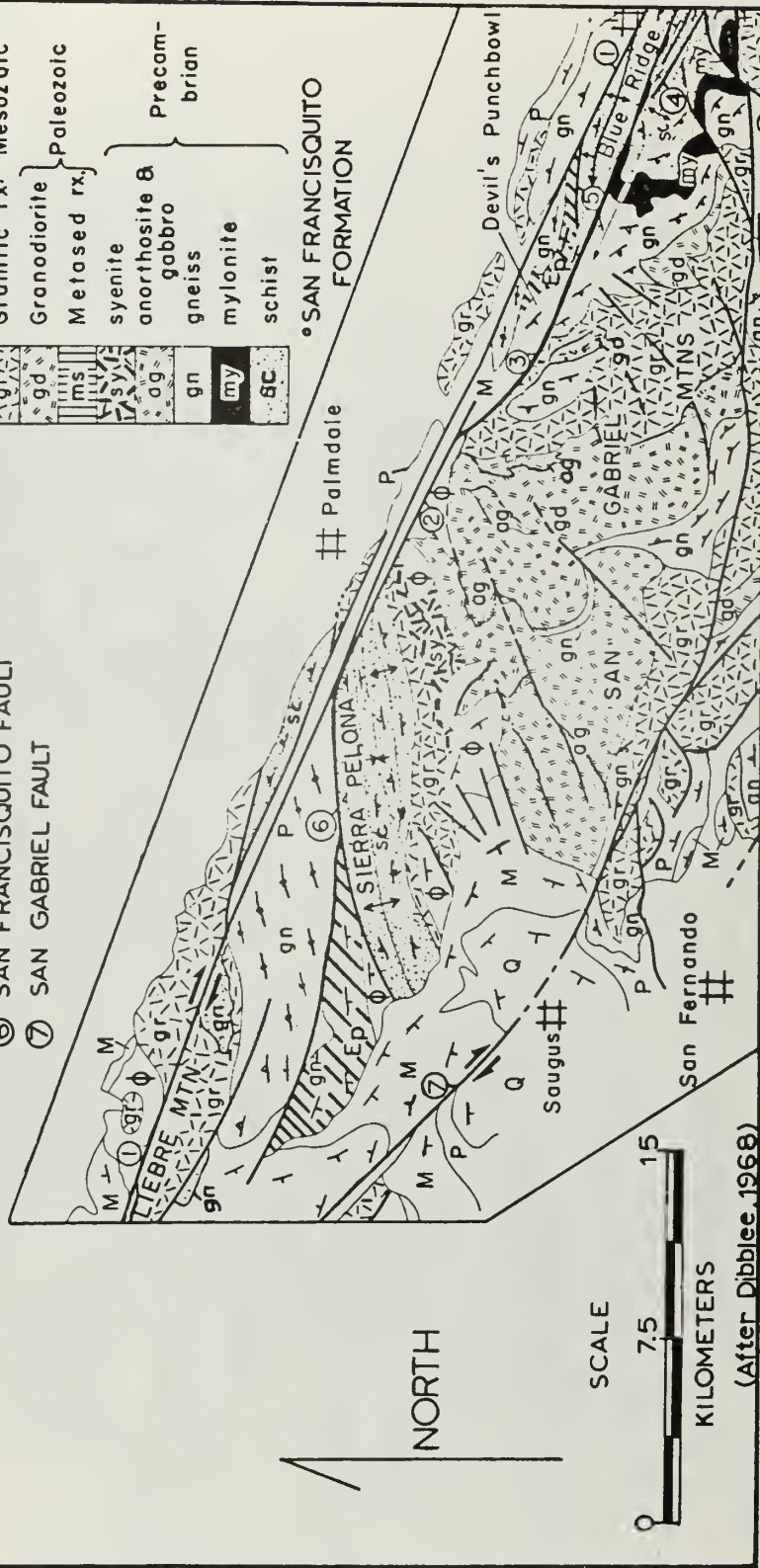


Figure 1. Geologic map of the Sierra Pelona and Blue Ridge areas, California.

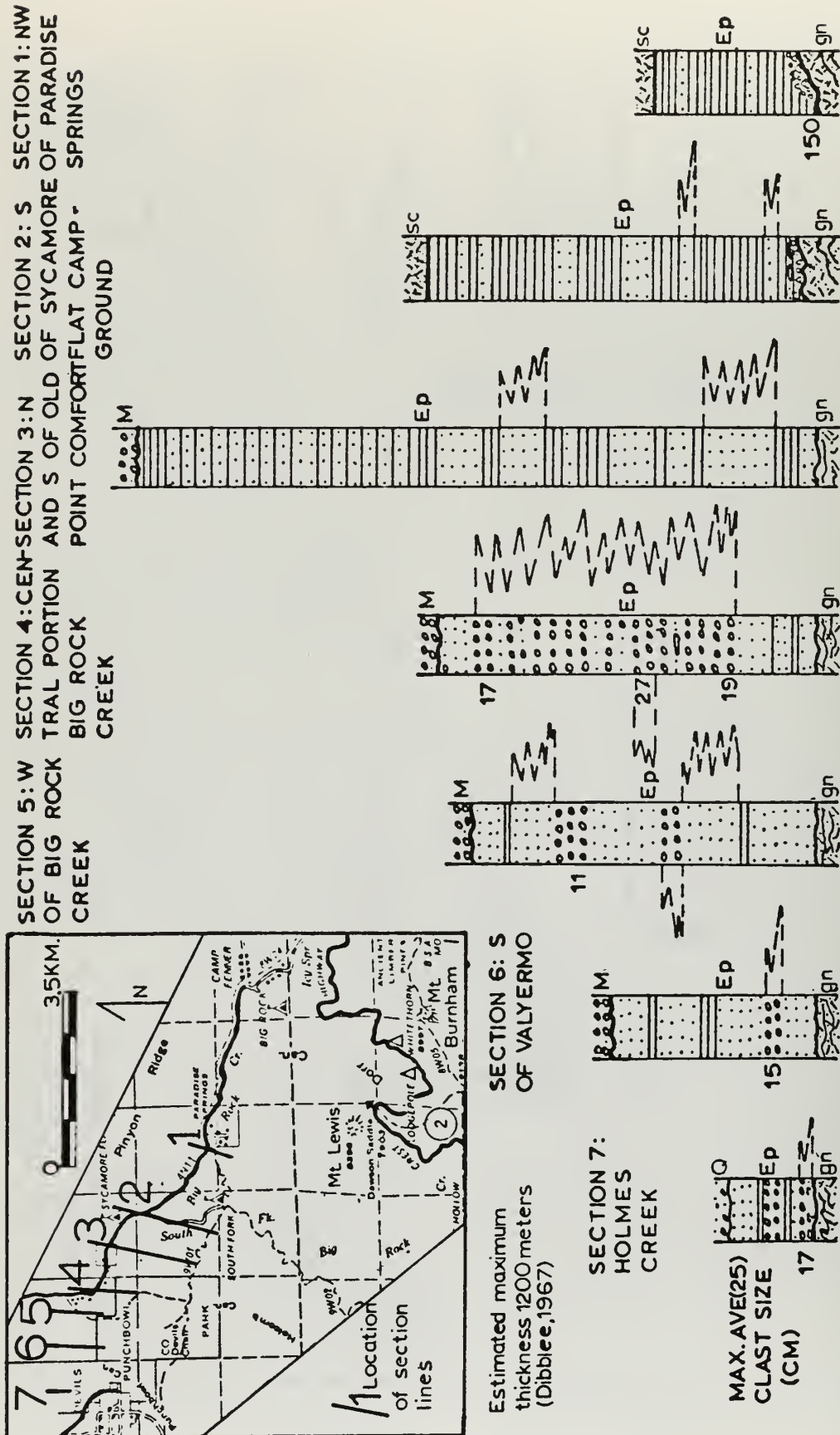


Figure 2. Stratigraphic sections and vicinity map San Francisquito Formation, Big Rock Creek area.

LITHOLOGY	<p>Shale facies: poorly bedded, moderately indurated, carbonaceous shale; interbedded, moderate-to poorly sorted, fine-to coarse-grained sandstone. Sandstone facies: thick-bedded, moderately indurated, poorly sorted, medium-to very coarse-grained sandstone; subordinate carbonaceous shale. Conglomerate facies: thick-bedded, lenticular, well indurated, poorly sorted, pebble-to boulder conglomerate, subordinate thick-bedded, lenticular, well indurated, very coarse-grained sandstone.</p>	<p>Breccia facies: poorly bedded, poorly sorted, cobble to boulder breccia; deformed shale matrix. Shale facies: thin-bedded, moderately indurated carbonaceous shale and subordinate thin-bedded well indurated, moderately sorted, fine-to medium-grained sandstone. Sandstone facies: thick-bedded, well indurated, poorly sorted, medium-to coarse-grained sandstone; subordinate dark-gray shale. Conglomerate facies: thick-bedded, lenticular, well indurated, poorly sorted, pebble-to boulder conglomerate; subordinate lenticular, well indurated, poorly sorted, very coarse-grained sandstone.</p>
SEDIMENTARY STRUCTURES	<p>Shale facies: Complete Bouma sequences in thin-bedded sandstones. Sandstone facies: Bouma a-b-a and a-b-e intervals, flute casts. Conglomerate facies: pebble imbrication, lenticular channels, scour marks, graded bedding, rounded clasts.</p>	<p>Shale facies: complete Bouma sequences in thin-bedded sandstones. Sandstone facies: Bouma a-b-e intervals, groove casts. Conglomerate facies: pebble imbrication, lenticular channels, scour marks, graded bedding, rounded clasts.</p>
PALEOCURRENT AVERAGES	<p>Pebble imbrication: south-southwest Flute casts: south-southwest Small-scale crossbedding: southeast, northwest, south-southwest</p>	<p>Pebble imbrication: south-southwest Groove casts: northeast-southwest trend Small-scale crossbedding: southeast</p>
FOSSILS	<p>In situ fossils at base of section along unconformity: <u>Turritella pacheocoensis</u> Stanton, <u>Venericardia</u> sp., <u>Glycimeris</u> sp., <u>Turritella infragranulata</u> Gabb, <u>Crassatellites</u> <u>branneri</u> Waring, <u>Glycimeris</u> major Stanton. Abraided thick-shelled mollusks in conglomerate and sandstone facies, planktonic foraminifera in Shale facies.</p>	<p>In situ fossils at base of section along unconformity: <u>Turritella pacheocoensis</u> Stanton, <u>Venericardia</u> sp., <u>Glycimeris</u> sp., <u>Turritella infragranulata</u> Gabb, <u>Crassatellites</u> sp., <u>Amauropsis martinezensis</u> Dickerson. Abraided thick-shelled mollusks in Conglomerate and Sandstone facies.</p>

Figure 3. Sedimentologic features of the San Francisco Formation.

(Figs. 3 and 4). The shale facies consists of shale and subordinate sandstone which grade northwest into a thick-bedded sandstone facies. Both of the above facies progressively overlap the gneiss contact forming a "buttress" unconformity. The conglomerate facies is best exposed in Fish Canyon and grades rapidly southeast into the sandstone facies.

PALEOCURRENT FEATURES

Paleocurrent data (Fig. 5A) were obtained from pebble imbrication of ellipsoidal conglomerate clasts, flute casts, groove casts and small-scale cross bedding (less than 5 centimeters in height). The above features were difficult to locate and measure because of impenetrable chaparral obscuring exposures. Data were therefore obtained from outcrops in stream canyons and along trails and roadcuts. Fortunately, these exposures were interspersed throughout each locality thus assuring statistically significant measurements that are representative of average paleocurrent trends. Paleocurrent averages are summarized in Figure 3.

PALEOGEOGRAPHY

The depositional environment for the San Francisquito Formation is postulated to be a submarine fan-basin floor complex (Fig. 5B). Based upon paleocurrent data, facies changes, and sedimentary structures, it is envisioned that clastic materials were deposited on the submarine fans while sands were carried into a basin by turbidity currents. Muds were deposited from suspension. In the Big Rock Creek area local accumulations of breccia were derived from irregular topographic highs along the depositional interface.

Since the two San Francisquito Formation localities lie within the San Andreas fault system it is necessary to ascertain whether or not these strata are presently in the same geographic position as when deposition occurred. Dibblee (1968) postulated about 50 kilometers of displacement along the Nadeau and Punchbowl

faults in late Pliocene or Pleistocene time (Fig. 1). This offset was based on matching geology in the Sierra Pelona and Blue Ridge areas. The close lithologic and sedimentologic similarities between the San Francisquito Formation in the Big Rock Creek and Bouquet Reservoir-Fish Canyon areas suggest the rocks were probably deposited within the same or closely adjacent basins. Their present geographic distribution is thus attributed to post-Paleocene movement of approximately 50 kilometers along the Nadeau and Punchbowl faults within the San Andreas system.

Sedimentation trends of the above Paleocene strata can be used to determine whether or not a Paleocene or pre-Paleocene San Andreas fault was active in the San Francisquito Formation region. The following data suggest that the San Andreas fault in the above region, was either inactive from Precambrian (?) to the end of Paleocene time or fault activity was of a considerably smaller magnitude than commonly inferred from late Miocene to Recent time. 1) Precambrian (?) gneiss appear to be offset the same distance as Paleocene San Francisquito Formation. 2) Exposures of San Francisquito Formation consist of an orderly distribution of facies consistent with deposition in a submarine fan-ocean basin complex. In contrast, sedimentary deposits such as the Violin Breccia which were deposited from scarps adjacent to the active San Gabriel fault of the San Andreas fault system (Crowell, 1973) do not have the above orderly distribution of facies. 3) Breccia at the Paleocene-Precambrian (?) contact on Pinyon Ridge does not appear to have emanated from an active fault scarp as the breccia is not extensive laterally, and is absent along much of the contact. In addition, the breccia is not present in the Fish Canyon-Warm Springs Mountain area along the Paleocene-Precambrian (?) contact.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank the National Science Foundation for the Traineeship

CYN.

SI EQUA-
SQUITO
CYN. 10

CLEAR-WATER
WATER CYN.
CYN.DIVIDE

SPRINGS
MTN.

Estimated maximum thickness 2100 meters
(Dibblee, 1967)

SECT. 10: SECT. 9: SECT. 8: E
CASTAIC FISH CYN. FORK
CREEK FISH CYN.

MAX. AVE(25)
CLAST SIZE
(CM) — 17

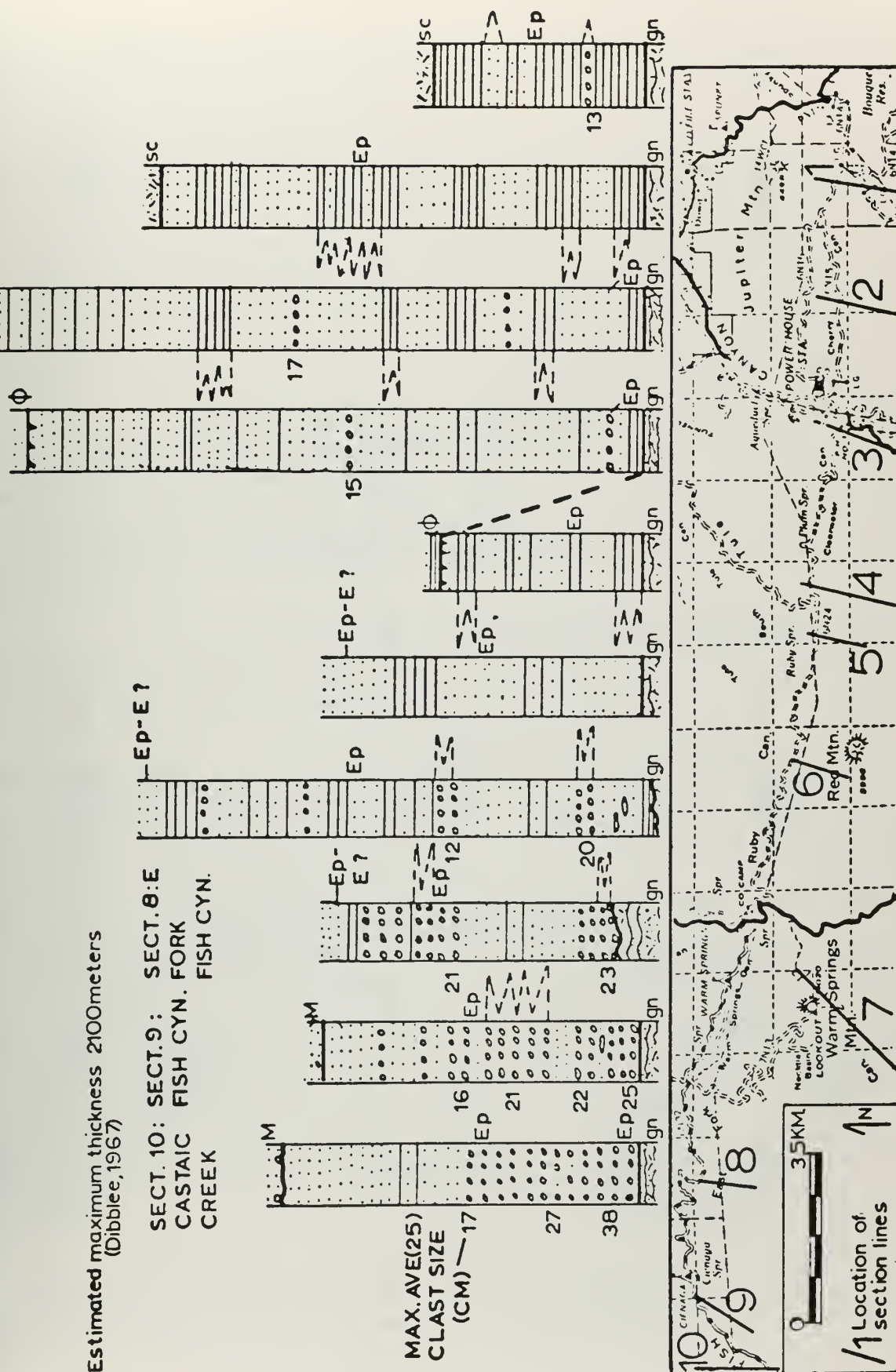
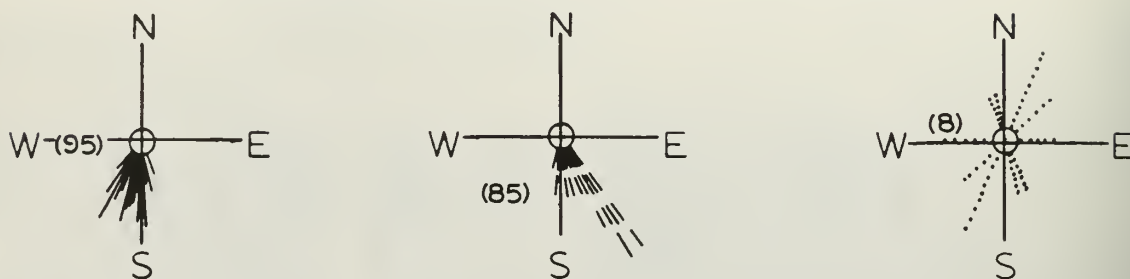


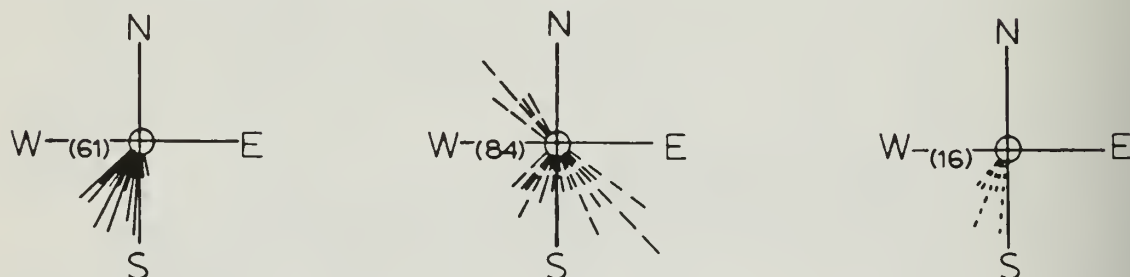
Figure 4. Stratigraphic sections and vicinity map San Francisco Formation, Bouquet Reservoir to Fish Canyon.

SAN FRANCISQUITO FORMATION BIG ROCK CREEK TO DEVILS PUNCHBOWL



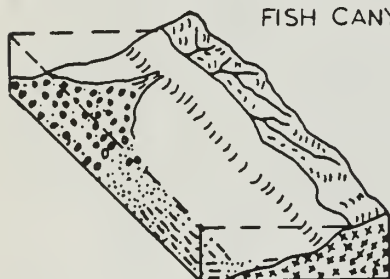
PALEOCURRENT DIRECTIONS FROM:
 / PEBBLE IMBRICATION
 - - - SMALL-SCALE CROSS BEDDING
 . . . FLUTE CASTS
 - . . - GROOVE CASTS
 (12) NUMBER OF MEASUREMENTS

SAN FRANCISQUITO FORMATION BOUQUET RESERVOIR TO FISH CANYON

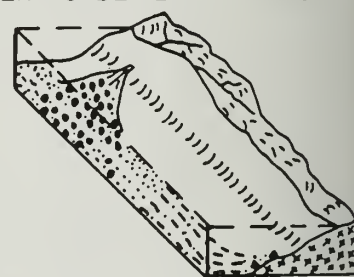


DEPOSITIONAL ENVIRONMENTS

SAN FRANCISQUITO FORMATION
 BOUQUET RESERVOIR TO
 FISH CANYON



SAN FRANCISQUITO FORMATION
 BIG ROCK CREEK TO DEVILS PUNCHBOWL



N
 Not to scale

Figure 5. A - Paleocurrent directions, San Francisquito Formation,
 B - Depositional Environments, San Francisquito Formation.

which supported my graduate education at the University of California, Santa Barbara. Additional support for field expenses was received from NSF Grant GA-10011 issued to Professor John C. Crowell. I am especially indebted to Professor Crowell for his advice and encouragement and to Dr. Bruce Crowe of the Geology Department, University of California, Santa Barbara, and Dr. Dave Howell, U.S. Geological Survey, for critically reviewing this manuscript.

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SYNOPSIS OF THE GEOLOGY OF THE EASTERN SAN GABRIEL MOUNTAINS, SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA

By D. M. Morton
U. S. Geological Survey
Menlo Park, California 94025

ABSTRACT

Eight major basement rock units are recognized and described on the basis of mapping about 350 km² of the eastern San Gabriel Mountains at 1:24,000. The basement rocks range in age from Precambrian(?) to Miocene. The metamorphic rocks can be assigned to the granulite, amphibolite, and greenschist facies. Quartz plutonites and cataclastic rocks are widespread.

Converging within the mountains are northwest-striking faults of the San Andreas system and east-striking faults of the Cucamonga fault zone. Between these fault complexes are a number of east- to northeast-striking faults, most of which converge with the San Jacinto fault zone to the northeast and the Cucamonga fault zone to the southwest. The San Jacinto fault appears to die out as it converges with the east- to northeast-striking faults. The Cucamonga fault is abruptly terminated on the east by faults related to the San Jacinto.

INTRODUCTION

The eastern San Gabriel Mountains present a bold south front that rises abruptly 2000 m above the alluvial fan-covered northern part of the upper Santa Ana Valley. The mountains are composed of a large variety of distinctive basement rocks with a predominantly east-striking structural grain. This rugged mountain front results from uplift on an east-striking fault zone termed the Cucamonga fault zone. The Cucamonga fault zone is the eastern part of a much longer fault complex that extends westward into the continental borderland. Within and bordering the mountains between the San Andreas system faults and those of the Cucamonga zone

are several east-to northeast-striking faults (Figs. 1, 2).

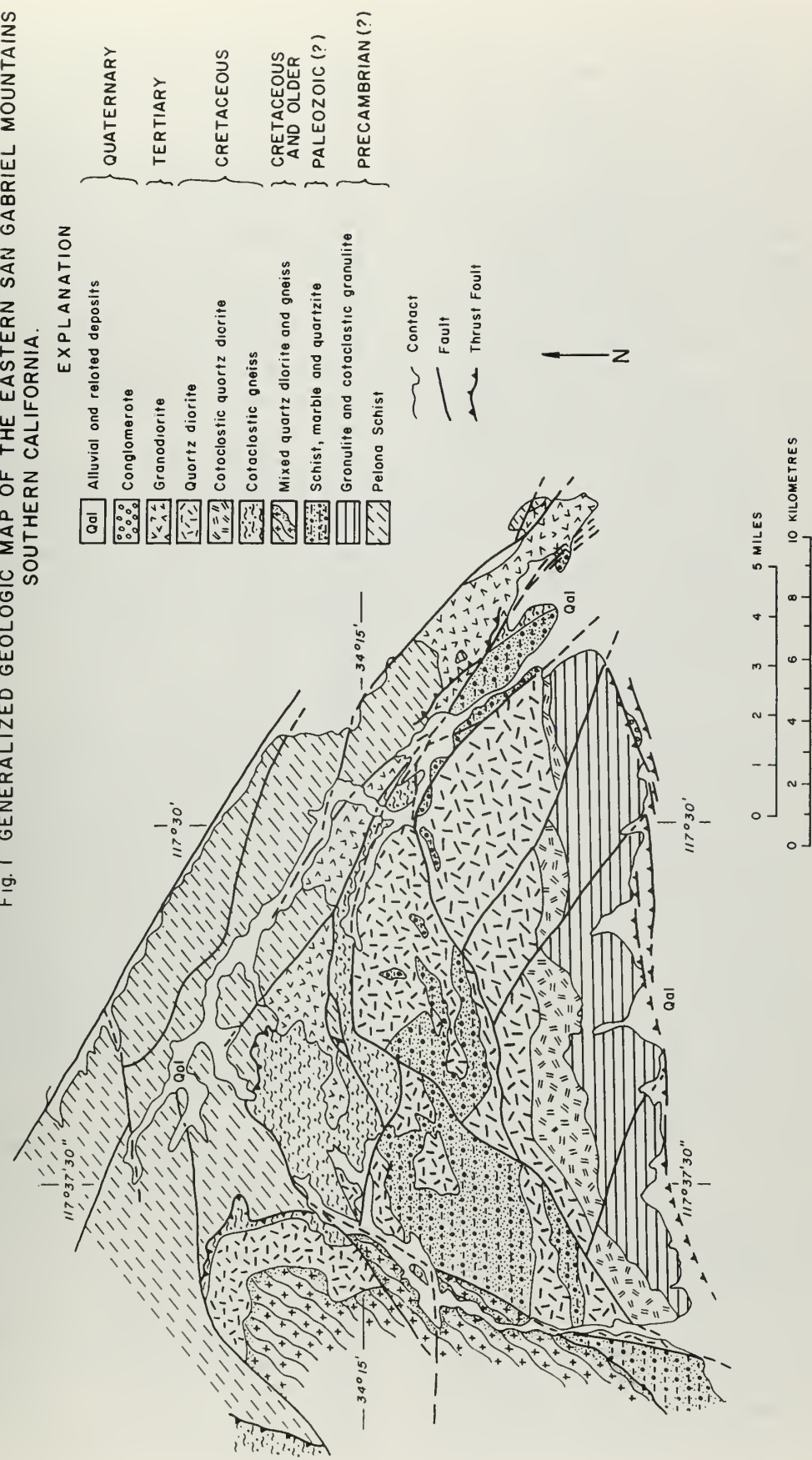
MAJOR ROCK TYPES

Granulitic rock, now largely cataclastically deformed, is exposed along the southern edge of the mountains. Considered to be Precambrian(?), it has been previously studied only in its western extent (Alf, 1948; Hsu, 1955). This unit consists of varied lithologies including layered gneiss, charnockitic rock, quartzite, marble, and amphibolite, which have undergone multiple penetrative deformations. The latest deformations, which were cataclastic, were most intense in the southern part of this unit, where it is also involved in deformation related to movement within the Cucamonga fault zone.

Metasedimentary rock thought to be Paleozoic (Woodford, 1960), occurs north of the granulitic rock and is separated from the latter by quartz diorite. Where it is best exposed on the east side of San Antonio Canyon, it is composed of thick sequences of amphibolite grade biotite schist, graphitic schist, marble, and quartzite (Baird, 1956; Ehlig, 1958). These rocks are tightly folded with chiefly east-striking foliation and structural grain. Eastward from San Antonio Canyon they are complexly intruded by quartz diorite. Similar-appearing rocks are exposed in lower Lytle Creek, largely between the San Jacinto and Lytle Creek faults.

The Pelona Schist, which has been considered Precambrian(?) (e.g., Noble 1954; Dibblee, 1968) and Cretaceous(?) (Ehlig, 1968), is a greenschist-facies rock widely exposed on the northern flank of the mountains to the San

Fig. 1 GENERALIZED GEOLOGIC MAP OF THE EASTERN SAN GABRIEL MOUNTAINS
SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA.



Andreas fault. Immediately beneath the Vincent thrust (Fig. 1) the schist consists of greenstone, which grades downward into predominantly gray albite-white mica-quartz schist. North of the Punchbowl fault the schist appears to be of slightly, but consistently, higher metamorphic grade than to the south. Although it appears structurally simple, the schist contains widespread and locally abundant slip folds and kink folds.

Cataclastically textured rock, dominantly cataclastic gneiss, overlies the Vincent thrust. Considered to be genetically related to movement on Vincent thrust (Ehlig, 1958), this rock varies considerably in thickness and may not be wholly a result of movement on the Vincent thrust. Adjacent to the Vincent thrust the cataclastic rock is very fine grained or aphanitic. Cataclastic rock occurs also on the east side of lower Lytle Creek.

Cretaceous quartz diorite and cataclastically deformed quartz diorite are widespread throughout the eastern San Gabriel Mountains south of the Vincent thrust. Mainly a medium- to coarse-grained biotite-hornblende quartz diorite, it is variable in texture and composition, especially in the vicinity of metamorphic rock units. Cataclastic textures are common and are pervasive in a zone along the southern part of its extent where it is a dark, flintlike rock studded with large porphyroblasts, or porphyroclasts, of hornblende and plagioclase; this cataclastic rock was termed the "black belt mylonite" by Alf (1948).

The foliated quartz diorite above the Vincent thrust near San Antonio Peak contains abundant inclusions of the distinctive Permian or Triassic Mount Lowe Granodiorite of Miller (1926).

West of San Antonio Canyon is a mixed assemblage of gneiss and quartz diorite, locally cut by basaltic dikes. North of the San Gabriel fault zone this unit con-

tains masses of gneissic Mount Lowe Granodiorite.

Massive light-colored granodiorite of Miocene age (Hsu and others, 1963; Miller and Morton, 1974) is intrusive into cataclastic gneiss and the Pelona Schist. In its western extent, rock near the intrusive margin is characterized by a hypabyssal texture; in eastern exposures all this rock consists of medium grained biotite granodiorite more representative of the body as a whole.


A small amount of conglomerate of Pliocene or Pleistocene age is exposed in the southeastern part of the mountains. In thrust contact with the granulite-cataclastic, this conglomerate completely lacks clasts of basement rock types now exposed in the eastern San Gabriel Mountains.

FAULTS

Thrusts of the east-striking Cucamonga fault zone and northwest-striking faults of the San Andreas fault system converge in the southeastern San Gabriel Mountains. The Cucamonga fault zone consists of numerous north-dipping imbricate thrusts along a 3-km-wide zone along the southern margin of the mountains. Many of the individual faults within this zone are marked by numerous scarps up to 35 m high in alluvial fans and exposures of granulite-cataclastic thrust over alluvial gravel (Morton and Yerkes, 1974).

The oldest and best known thrust in the San Gabriel Mountains, the Vincent thrust (Noble, 1954; Ehlig, 1958), is represented by four segments that are cut by high-angle faults. It is marked by a variety of cataclastic rock resting on the Pelona Schist. The cataclastic rock has been considered the product of deformation associated with the thrusting, probably during Late Cretaceous time (Ehlig, 1968). The Vincent thrust is intruded by the Miocene granodiorite

Fig. 2 GENERALIZED FAULT MAP OF THE EASTERN
SAN GABRIEL MOUNTAINS, SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA.

 Fault, showing dip. Arrows indicate
relative horizontal movement.

 Thrust fault, sawteeth on upper
plate.

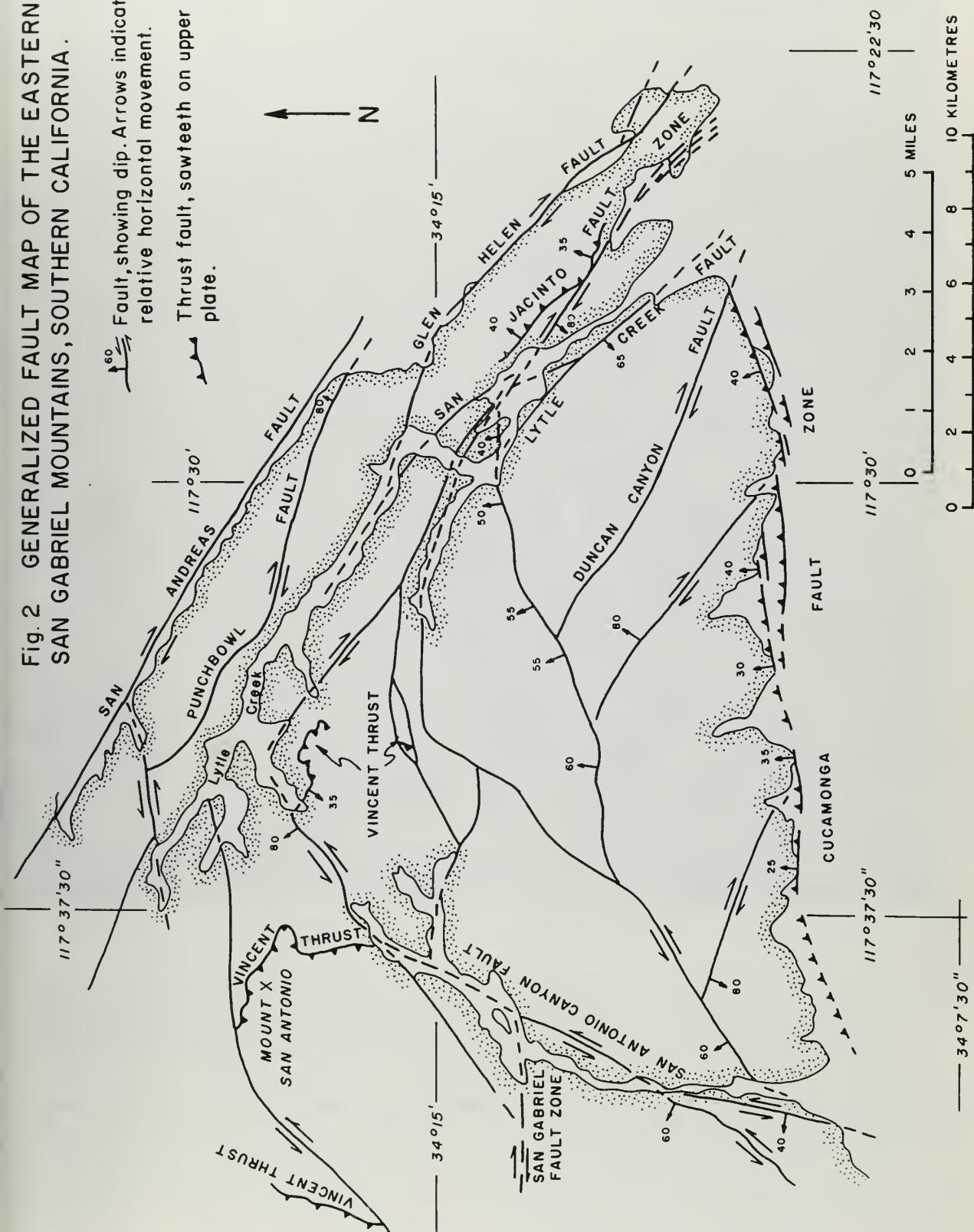




Figure 3. View looking northwest into the Lytle Creek drainage, eastern San Gabriel mountains. The San Jacinto fault zone enters the mountains in the center foreground occupying a fault line valley, before branching into the tributary canyons of Lytle Creek. Cucamonga Peak is the high point on the left and San Antonio Peak is the snow covered peak on the center skyline.

The San Andreas system, physiographically dominated by the San Andreas fault, is a complex of subparallel faults along which within the northern part of the mountains. Accented by numerous scarps and sag ponds, the San Andreas fault zone contains a series of linear fault-line scarps on the northern side of the mountains. Oldest of the San Andreas system faults in this area is the Punchbowl fault (Noble, 1954), which apparently joins the San Andreas fault immediately east of the San Gabriel Mountains (Arton, unpub. mapping). Within the map area the Punchbowl follows a sinuous course 1 to 2.5 km west of the San Andreas and is marked by a nearly continuous septum of sheared gneiss bounded by Pelona Schist. The topographic expression of this fault is vague in most places and totally lacks any feature suggestive of recent displacement, except for a local scarp in its eastern extent in the mountains. In the upper reaches of Lytle Creek, it is offset by a younger northeast-striking fault.

The San Jacinto fault zone consists of a shear zone up to 300 m wide where it enters the San Gabriel Mountains. It lacks any primary surface fault features and lies within a fault-line valley (Fig. 3). The youngest documented displacement along this zone is thrusting of Tertiary granodiorite over Quaternary alluvium derived from the granodiorite (Arton, unpub. map). East of the San Jacinto fault is the Glen Helen fault, whose surface expression includes scarps and sag ponds. The Glen Helen fault extends westward 10 km within the mountains and joins the San Jacinto fault in Lytle Creek.

West of the San Jacinto fault is the Lytle Creek fault which, like the San Jacinto, displays no primary surface fault features but does offset older alluvium.

Right-lateral separation of basement rock contacts on the combined San

Jacinto-Glen Helen faults is about 13 km. An additional 2 to 3 km right-lateral separation is recorded on three north-west-striking faults west of Lytle Creek. Thus, the aggregate observable lateral separation is about 10 km less than that documented by Sharp (1967) for the San Jacinto fault zone to the south.

Within the mountains the combined San Jacinto-Glen Helen-Lytle Creek faults form an imbricate complex, which progressively diverges westward into a series of east- to northeast-striking and north-dipping faults over a distance of 12 km (Fig. 3). Mapping in progress has revealed no geologic or surface expression of the San Jacinto fault 19 km within the mountains, a marked contrast from the 300-m-wide shear zone at the southern mountain front. As noted by Dibblee (1968) the San Jacinto fault joins neither the Punchbowl nor San Andreas fault. The trace offset of the Punchbowl fault is in uppermost Lytle Creek aligned with the projection of the San Jacinto fault, which probably explains earlier interpretations that the San Jacinto is a through-going fault.

The east- to northeast-striking faults, into which the San Jacinto merges or splays, show, where determinable, left-lateral separation of basement rock units and, with the exception of the Weber fault, reverse separation. Most of these faults converge near the mouth of San Antonio Canyon, seemingly merging with the Cucamonga fault zone, 26 km west of where the San Jacinto fault enters the mountains.

CONCLUSIONS

Current mapping in the eastern San Gabriel Mountains indicates that the surface trace of the San Jacinto fault does not join the San Andreas or Punchbowl faults but rather diverges into a series of east-to northeast-striking faults.

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BASEMENT ROCKS OF THE SAN GABRIEL MOUNTAINS,
SOUTH OF THE SAN ANDREAS FAULT, SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA

Perry L. Ehlig
California State University
Los Angeles, California 90032

ABSTRACT

A highly varied basement terrane containing unusual rock types is exposed in the San Gabriel Mountains south of the San Andreas fault. Precambrian rocks in the western part of the range and the Soledad Basin include from oldest to youngest: (1) amphibolite-gneiss and amphibolite; (2) distinctive augen-gneiss derived from granite; (3) distinctive granulite-facies Mendenhall schist formed from older granitic and gneissic rocks and subsequently largely retrograded to amphibolite-facies; and (4) highly distinctive anorthosite, syenite and diorite. Permo-Triassic Lowe Granodiorite is a large differentiated pluton within the northwestern and central parts of the range. It has four facies, each with a characteristic mineralogy and texture. The above formations are intruded by Mesozoic and older(?) basic dikes which are metamorphosed to amphibolite. Late Mesozoic granitic rocks form extensive plutons in the central and southern parts of the range.

The above formations form the upper plate of the late Mesozoic-early Cenozoic Vincent thrust fault; Mesozoic(?) Pelona Schist forms the lower plate. The Vincent thrust and Pelona Schist are exposed in the northeastern San Gabriel Mountains and Sierra Pelona, and antiform north of the Soledad Basin. The thrust is marked by a thick zone of cataclastic rocks partially retrograded to greenschist-facies. The Pelona Schist is derived from interbedded graywacke, siltstone, shale, basic volcanics and minor chert and limestone which were prograded to greenschist-facies synchronously with the movement on the Vincent thrust.

INTRODUCTION

The San Gabriel Mountains have been uplifted along the south side of the San Andreas fault in the central part of the Transverse Range Province. The range, predominantly composed of basement rocks, forms a rugged barrier between the subdued topography of the Mojave Desert to the north and the highly urbanized coastal lowland of the Los Angeles area to the south. To the east across Cajon Pass, an erosional gap along the San Andreas fault, lie the San Bernardino Mountains. The Santa Susana Mountains which are underlain by folded sedimentary rocks are a westward continuation of the San Gabriel Mountains. The northwestern part of the range merges into lower terrain of the Soledad Basin, due to a regional synformal structure and the presence of more easily eroded rocks in that area. Crystalline rocks exposed in the eastern part of the Soledad Basin and in Sierra Pelona, a small Transverse Range to the north, are a northwestward continuation of the basement terrane of the San Gabriel Mountains.

The San Gabriel Mountains and adjacent areas are readily accessible by paved road and road cuts provide many excellent exposures. No point is more than 5 miles from a paved road; however, rugged topography makes hiking off roads slow and tedious over much of the area.

Basement rocks exposed within this area range from Precambrian to Miocene in age and are described under the following headings: (1) Precambrian gneisses; (2) Precambrian anorthosite, syenite and related rocks; (3) Permo-Triassic Lowe Granodiorite; (4) pre-Cretaceous amphibolite and felsite dikes; (5) late Mesozoic granitic rocks; (6) Mesozoic Pelona Schist and associated Vincent thrust;

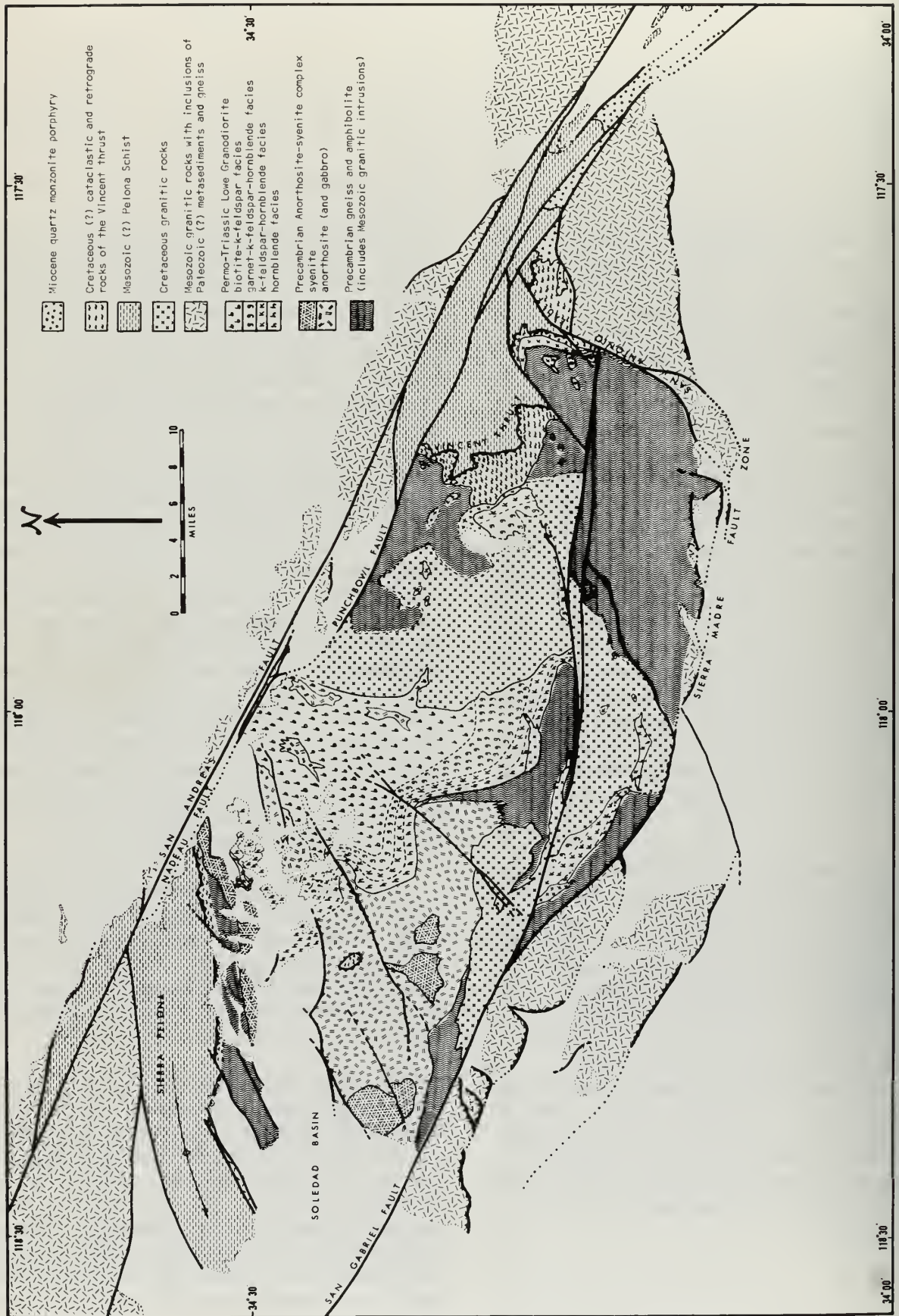


FIGURE 1. Map showing distribution of basement rocks in the San Gabriel Mountains. Modified after Geologic Map of California, Los Angeles Sheet (1969) and San Bernardino Sheet (1967). Distribution of syenite in part from Carter and Oliver (1967).

Paleozoic(?) metasediments and related gneiss and migmatite; and (8) Miocene abyssal intrusives. Rocks described under headings 1 through 5 form the upper part of the late Cretaceous(?) or early Paleozoic(?) Vincent thrust fault within the main part of the area and the Pelona Schist forms the lower plate. Rocks derived from Paleozoic(?) strata are described out of sequence because they are largely of local occurrence. Cenozoic sedimentary rocks occur near the margins of the San Gabriel Mountains but are not described here.

There is a conspicuous discontinuity in the basement terrane across the San Andreas fault and the Nadeau-Punchbowl fault, which is an inactive branch of the San Andreas fault located a short distance south of the main fault. Quaternary uplift of the San Gabriel Mountains, accomplished primarily by reverse faulting along the southern margin and arching along the northern margin, is only indirectly related to the San Andreas fault.

CAMBRIAN GNEISS

Gneisses of confirmed Precambrian age occur within the western San Gabriel Mountains and adjoining Soledad Basin to the north of the San Gabriel fault. The gneisses consist of layered quartzofeldspathic gneiss and amphibolite metamorphosed to amphibolite facies and intruded by augen gneiss. The augen gneiss is a distinctive rock containing abundant large grains of pink K-feldspar in a strongly foliated matrix of biotite, oligoclase and quartz. It originated as a porphyritic granite about 1670 m.y. ago (Silver, 1971) and was later metamorphosed. Similar augen gneiss is exposed near Frazier Park to the west of San Gabriel fault and in the eastern Orocopia Mountains to the east of the San Andreas fault. The Augén gneiss from all three areas yield the same age (Silver, 1971). The augen gneiss of this area can be seen along Sierra Highway in Little Tujunga Canyon north of Davenport Rd.

The Mendenhall Gneiss, described and dated by Oakeshott (1958), p. 21-29),

occurs in the western San Gabriel Mountains to the south and southeast of the anorthosite-syenite complex and can be seen in Pacoima Canyon to the north of Little Tujunga Rd. It appears to be an extension of the terrane described above but it underwent granulite-facies metamorphism about 1440 m.y. ago (Silver and others, 1963). Subsequent amphibolite-facies metamorphism has largely destroyed the granulite-facies mineral assemblages but has left distinctive replacement textures. Relict hypersthene, augite, garnet and alkali feldspar (hairline perthite to antiperthite) have survived locally. Blue to violet quartz is a more widespread relict. Offset equivalents to the Mendenhall Gneiss occur west of the San Gabriel fault in the area south of Frazier Park (Crowell, this vol.) and east of the San Andreas fault in the Orocopia Mountains (Crowell, this vol.).

Gneiss and amphibolite of probable Precambrian age are widespread in the central San Gabriel Mountains but have not been dated. They are profusely intruded and locally migmatized by younger granitic rocks. Some have conspicuous compositional banding suggestive of a sedimentary origin; others are fairly homogeneous suggesting an igneous origin. All have a simple amphibolite-facies mineralogy consisting mainly of feldspar, quartz, biotite and hornblende.

PRECAMBRIAN ANORTHOSITE, SYENITE AND RELATED ROCKS

These rocks form a large massif in the western San Gabriel Mountains and eastern Soledad Basin recently described by Carter and Silver (1972) and previously described by Miller (1931, 1934), Oakeshott (1937, 1954, 1958), Higgs (1945), and Crowell and Walker (1962). The complex was emplaced 1220 m.y. ago (Silver and others, 1963; Silver, 1971). The most abundant rock type is purplish-gray to blue-gray and white andesine anorthosite. It occurs in association with norite in what was initially a stratiform body with prominent compositional layering

produced by gravitational settling of crystals (Carter and Silver, 1972). Subsequent folding, faulting and intrusion by granitic rocks has complicated the structure. Excellent exposures are present along Angeles Forest Highway south of Baughman Spring.

Alkali syenite is exposed in the southwestern part of the anorthosite body and in a belt, 1 to 3 miles wide, extending along the northern edge of the Soledad Basin from Agua Dulce Canyon to the San Andreas fault, a distance of 12 miles. The syenite consists mainly of alkali feldspar which has exsolved into a distinctive hairline mesoperthite. Blue to violet quartz is a minor constituent in many places and is sufficiently abundant locally to refer to the rock as an alkali granite. Pyroxene and olivine were originally present in most of the syenite but are replaced by aggregates of tiny biotite crystals. In spite of its dark drab appearance, the syenite is a highly distinctive rock and provides strong evidence for offset along the San Andreas fault. Identical syenite is one of the main rock types within the anorthosite complex of the Orocochia Mountains described by Crowell and Walker (1962) and Crowell (this vol.). Syenite clasts also occur in alluvium offset along the San Andreas fault. The syenite is well exposed on Tenhi Mountain south of Lake Palmdale.

In addition to occurrences within the main anorthosite body, metamorphosed gabbro, pyroxenite and peridotite occur as pendants in Lowe granodiorite and Mesozoic granitic rocks in the northern and central San Gabriel Mountains.

PERMO-TRIASSIC LOWE GRANODIORITE

The Lowe Granodiorite is about 220 m.y. old (Silver, 1971). This is a unique age among plutonic rocks in southern California. It is a distinctive rock which is exposed over an area of 100 square miles in the central and northwestern San Gabriel Mountains and eastern Soledad Basin. All exposures appear to belong to a single northwest-trending pluton. The pluton's

western margin forms a sharp smooth steeply inclined contact against Mendocino Gneiss and the anorthosite-syenite complex. No Lowe Granodiorite is known to crop out west of this margin. The eastern part of the pluton is disrupted by a large Cretaceous granitic intrusion but septa of Lowe Granodiorite occur within migmatite and gneiss further east indicating that the eastern margin was irregular with apophyses extending considerable distances into the country. The northern part of the pluton is truncated by the San Andreas fault. The southern part is offset 14 miles to the right along the north branch of the San Gabriel fault. The southern part is disrupted by younger granitic intrusions but pendants of the marginal facies indicate the pluton did not extend as far south as the present range margin or the south branch of the San Gabriel fault.

The Lowe Granodiorite has an original foliation and compositional zoning subparallel to the pluton's western margin. In most areas a late Mesozoic regional metamorphism has enhanced the original foliation and has modified igneous textures through granulation and partial recrystallization. The Lowe Granodiorite is characterized by a high feldspar content, ranging from about 60 to 95 percent and a low quartz content, generally varying on either side of 10 percent. Its name is misleading in that it varies from diorite near the pluton's margin to granite and syenite in the interior. Four facies have been distinguished for mapping purposes as shown in Fig. 1. Along the border is the hornblende facies composed of abundant rectangular to oval black hornblende phenocrysts set in a matrix of white andesine and minor interstitial quartz and K-feldspar. In many areas the hornblende has been extensively altered to green epidote. The hornblende facies grades into the hornblende-K-feldspar facies with the fairly abrupt appearance of abundant K-feldspar phenocrysts scattered through the matrix of calcic oligoclase to sodic andesine and minor quartz. The hornblende phenocrysts are larger and less abundant than in the

er facies and, where particularly
 ease grained, create a strikingly spotted
 amation" textured rock. The next zone
 marked by the incoming of garnet and is
 rred to as the hornblende-K-feldspar-
 net facies. The garnets occur both as
 seminated crystals, as much as 2 cm
 ss, and in concentrations along seams
 ce late crystallizing fluids migrated.
 eldspar phenocrysts in this facies
 ally attain a length of 10 cm. The
 erior facies contains a small amount of
 -ite, typically less than 10 percent,
 ng with feldspar. In this facies K-
 dspar occurs as large phenocrysts within
 of the area but in places it occurs
 read as part of the white granular
 -ix. Plagioclase, the most abundant
 eral, ranges from oligoclase to albite.
 tz tends to occur in veinlets and
 cure interstitial grains. Its abun-
 ce varies from a trace to about 25
 cent in an area of quartz-rich rock near
 le Rock Creek. The biotite-bearing
 ks crystallized last and may have
 ned by a resurgence of magma from
 h. In Soledad Pass the biotite-bear-
 facies is in contact with the horn-
 nde border facies. Elsewhere tongues
 hornblende-bearing rocks interfinger
 in biotite-bearing rocks but biotite and
 hornblende do not coexist in the same
 er. All of the facies of Lowe Grano-
 -ite can be seen along Angeles Forest
 way north of the anorthosite complex.

Lowe Granodiorite occurs east of the
 a Andreas fault in a few small outcrops
 icked by Crowell (1973) at the north
 n of the Chocolate Mountains and as
 physes in gneiss in the central Choco-
 ae Mountains recently discovered by John
 ilon. Clasts of all four facies of the
 be Granodiorite occur in a mudflow
 rcia overlying lava flows in the Oligo-
 ee-lower Miocene Diligencia Formation at
 ayon Springs in the Orocopia Mountains.
 h clasts have been dated by Silver (1971)
 h confirms their unique age of 220 m.y.
 ng the north side of the San Gabriel
 contains Pleistocene alluvial deposits
 otaining abundant Lowe Granodiorite
 lts are offset along the San Andreas
 alt as much as 20 miles from their

probable source area. The distribution
 of Lowe Granodiorite clasts also provides
 supportive evidence for right-slip along
 the San Gabriel fault (Ehlig, 1973;
 Crowell, this vol.; Ehlig and others,
 this vol.).

PRE-CRETACEOUS AMPHIBOLITE AND FELSITE DIKES

Metamorphosed dikes are common in
 areas underlain by the rocks described
 above but are cut by Cretaceous granitic
 rocks. The dikes are typically only a
 few feet thick and have straight parallel
 walls. The original dikes were mainly
 andesite and basalt but have been meta-
 morphosed to amphibolite consisting of
 hornblende and plagioclase with a meta-
 morphic texture. Biotite is abundant in
 some dikes. Metamorphosed rhyolite dikes
 containing scattered phenocrysts of quartz
 in a granophyric groundmass occur in a
 north-south belt extending across the
 west-central part of the San Gabriel
 Mountains. Some metarhyolite dikes form
 subhorizontal sheets, as much as 50 feet
 thick, which are traceable over an area
 of more than a square mile.

The dikes are another feature charac-
 teristic of the pre-Cretaceous basement
 terrane and show that some areas have
 experienced little internal deformation
 since dike emplacement.

LATE MESOZOIC GRANITIC ROCKS

Common types of medium-grained grani-
 tic rocks, typically ranging from melano-
 cratic hornblende quartz diorite to leu-
 cocratic biotite quartz monzonite intrude
 all other pre-Cenozoic basement rocks
 except Pelona Schist. One intrusion
 along the south side of the anorthosite
 complex has been dated at about 80 m.y.
 (Carter and Silver, 1971). An intrusion
 into Paleozoic(?) metasedimentary rocks
 east of the San Antonio fault has been
 dated at about 105 million years (Hsu and
 others, 1963) but its relationship to
 rocks west of the fault is uncertain.
 The largest pluton, which is exposed over
 an area of 75 square miles in the central

part of the range, has not been dated.

Contacts between granitic rocks and their hosts tend to be sharp in the area of sparse intrusions in the northwestern part of the range but extensive migmatization has also occurred in areas of Paleozoic(?) metasedimentary rocks described below.

MESOZOIC(?) PELONA SCHIST AND ASSOCIATED VINCENT THRUST

In the northeastern San Gabriel Mountains erosion has cut through the previously described rocks and exposed the Vincent thrust fault and about 10,000 feet of underlying Pelona Schist (see fig. 1). The Vincent thrust is marked by a thick zone of cataclastic and retrograde metamorphic rocks developed from the basal part of the upper plate. The fault contact between Pelona Schist and the overlying rocks can be placed within an inch where exposures are perfect but the actual fault movement was distributed throughout the zone of cataclastic and retrograde metamorphic rocks overlying the schist and to a lesser extent within the Pelona Schist as well.

The Pelona Schist has undergone prograde metamorphism within the lower greenschist-facies and is characterized by highly developed schistosity parallel to bedding. The most abundant lithology is gray muscovite-albite-quartz schist derived from thinly interbedded graywacke, siltstone and shale. The gray color is due to finely disseminated graphite. Albite porphyroblasts in the coarser-grained schists are colored gray to black by graphite. Green chlorite-actinolite-epidote-albite schist derived from basaltic tuff is common in the upper part of the sequence. Quartzite derived from chert and thin beds of marble are minor rock types typically interbedded with green schist. Prograde metamorphism of the schist occurred synchronously with movement along the Vincent thrust, probably as the combined result of deep burials beneath the thrust's upper plate, heat derived from the upper plate and dynamic forces caused by the thrusting

(Ehlig, 1958, 1968).

The zone of cataclastic rocks along the Vincent thrust varies from about 2 to over 2000 feet thick and includes mylonite, protomylonite, ultramylonite mildly cataclastic tectonic inclusions and, near the base of the thrust, rock at various stages of retrograde metamorphism to greenschist-facies mineral assemblages. The variation in thickness of thrust rocks is due to tectonic thickening and thinning and involves extensive folding. A large overturned fold in the Pelona Schist directly beneath the thrust indicates that here the upper plate moved from the southwest during a late stage in the movement. displacement along the thrust has not been determined but is likely to be several tens of miles.

The Vincent thrust apparently extends beneath the entire San Gabriel Range and reappears along the southeastern edge of Sierra Pelona, a tight antiform exposing Pelona Schist to the north of the synformal Soledad Basin. Relationships at Sierra Pelona are similar to those in the San Gabriel Mountains except that the prograde metamorphism of the schist reaches lower amphibolite-facies close to the thrust and the tight post-metamorphic antiformal folding has caused the more flexible schist to pierce upward through the overlying cataclastic and upper plate rocks along much of its contact.

The Pelona Schist forming Blue Ridge between the Punchbowl and San Andreas faults in the northeastern San Gabriel Mountains appears to be displaced from Sierra Pelona by 25-30 miles of right slip along the Punchbowl fault as described below. The Pelona Schist and Vincent thrust rocks are also exposed in low hills around San Bernardino and Redlands and further east in the San Bernardino Mountains to the south of the San Andreas fault. This occurrence is an eastward continuation of those exposed in the eastern San Gabriel Mountains to the south of the Punchbowl fault (see Dibble this vol.). The Orocochia Schist and

associated Orocochia thrust in southeastern California are probably an eastward continuation of the Pelona Schist and Vincent thrust that are offset along the San Andreas fault (see Crowell, this vol.).

The depositional age of the Pelona Schist has not been determined but need be older than late Cretaceous. Metamorphism of the schist and associated development of the Vincent thrust fault occurred after Cretaceous granitic rocks were intruded into the thrust's upper plate. A metamorphic age of about 52 m.y. was obtained by K-Ar and Rb-Sr methods (Elig and others, 1975). Although this may represent a post-metamorphic cooling age, it suggests the schist was hot as recently as Eocene and was therefore deeply buried.

PALEOZOIC(?) METASEDIMENTS AND RELATED GNEISS AND MIGMATITE

These rocks occur (1) to the north of the San Andreas fault, (2) east of the San Antonio fault in the eastern San Gabriel Mountains, (3) south of the San Gabriel fault in the southwestern San Gabriel Mountains and adjoining Verdugo Mountains, and (4) in a small area west of San Gabriel Canyon near the south-central range margin. The exposures north of the San Andreas fault consist of marble and calc-silicate rocks emersed in quartzofeldspathic gneiss, migmatite and granitic rocks. Amphibolite-facies metamorphism occurred during emplacement of granitic rocks. Similar rocks are exposed in the eastern San Bernardino Mountains to the north of the San Andreas fault.

Metasedimentary rocks constitute a significant part of the terrane east of the San Antonio fault. Strata derived from quartz arenite, dolomite, siltstone and aluminous and carbonaceous shale have a cumulative thickness of more than 5000 feet. High temperature amphibolite-facies metamorphism occurred during intrusion of granitic rocks. In the southern part of the area, a belt of mylonitic rocks several thousand feet thick trends nearly east-west from the San Antonio fault to

the eastern edge of the range (Alf, 1948; Hsu, 1955). Part of the rocks south of this belt have undergone granulite facies metamorphism. The mylonite formed after emplacement of Cretaceous granitic rocks. The eastward and westward extensions of this mylonite belt have not been located. The westward extension is probably concealed beneath the sedimentary cover in the San Gabriel Valley. Perhaps the belt is associated in some way with the Vincent thrust or a belt of mylonite along the east side of the San Jacinto Mountains.

Metasedimentary rocks south of the San Gabriel fault in the western part of the range and adjoining Verdugo Mountains include the same lithologies as those east of the San Antonio fault but are less well preserved. Metamorphism was in the upper amphibolite-facies and produced extensive migmatitic gneiss along the south-central range margin.

The Paleozoic(?) metasedimentary rocks appear to be too fragmentary and too widespread to be useful at present in establishing offset along the San Andreas fault.

MIOCENE HYPABYSSAL INTRUSIVES

Stocks of biotite quartz monzonite porphyry and associated dikes and sills intrude Pelona Schist and overlying rocks in the upper plate of the Vincent thrust in the eastern part of the range. Several K-Ar and Rb-Sr age determinations suggest an age of 15 to 20 m.y. (Hsu and others, 1963; Miller, 1974). Intrusions are truncated by the Punchbowl fault and do not occur in Pelona Schist of Blue Ridge but are present in Pelona Schist and overlying rocks in the area around San Bernardino and Redlands.

Shallow intrusive dikes are locally common in the southern and east-central San Gabriel Mountains. The most abundant are andesite, diabase and dacite but olivine basalt and quartz latite also occur. The dikes are generally assumed to be lower to middle Miocene in age because of the occurrence of extrusive volcanic

rocks of that age in the surrounding region.

SAN ANDREAS AND NADEAU-PUNCHBOWL FAULTS

Along the northern edge of the San Gabriel Mountains the San Andreas fault system includes the presently active San Andreas fault and the Nadeau-Punchbowl fault, located one to two miles south. The slice between the two faults is largely intact though strongly deformed. The Nadeau-Punchbowl fault is an old abandoned strand of the San Andreas fault showing no evidence of Holocene activity. It has a right slip of about 25-30 miles (Dibblee, 1967, p. 114; Ehlig, 1968, p. 301). This is based in part on (1) correlation of Fenner fault, which separates Pelona Schist from Paleocene marine strata and underlying granitic and gneissic rocks north of the Punchbowl fault, with the San Francisquito fault along the north side of Sierra Pelona and (2) similarities between Pelona Schist of Blue Ridge and Sierra Pelona.

Basement terrane north of the San Andreas fault in the vicinity of the San Gabriel Mountains consists mainly of common types of granitic rock and is devoid of distinctive rock types found south of the fault. However, all of the distinctive formations, including augen gneiss, Mendenhall gneiss, anorthosite, syenite and Lowe Granodiorite, occur across the fault in the Orocopia and Chocolate Mountains (Crowell, this vol.). This, in combination with data presented elsewhere in this volume, constitutes compelling evidence for about 150 miles of right slip along the San Andreas fault, including displacement along the Nadeau-Punchbowl fault.

Offset stream gravels provide abundant evidence for Quaternary offset along the north side of the San Gabriel Mountains. Streams draining northward from the mountains have deposited fans across the fault. Nearly every major stream has a different assemblage of rock types within its drainage area. In Cajon pass, the lower part of the Pleistocene Shoemaker Gravel contains clasts of Lowe Granodiorite and other rock types derived from 20-25 miles to the

west. Offsets of as much as 10 miles late Pleistocene alluvium are particularly convincing because the drainage systems which provided the alluvium are still intact.

SAN GABRIEL FAULT

The San Gabriel fault is an inactive strand of the San Andreas fault with a net right slip of 35-40 miles (Crowell, this vol.; Ehlig and others, this vol.). The fault splits into two branches within the western San Gabriel Mountains. The north branch offsets the Lowe Granodiorite-Mendenhall Gneiss contact about 10 miles. The north branch is truncated by the San Antonio fault in the eastern part of the range. The south branch extends to the south-central range margin where it becomes enmeshed with younger reverse faults of the Sierra Madre fault zone. This creates uncertainty regarding the location of the south branch east of its juncture with the Sierra Madre fault.

QUATERNARY RANGE UPLIFT

The San Gabriel Mountains have acquired their present elevation largely as the result of Quaternary displacement on northward dipping reverse faults of the Sierra Madre fault zone along the south margin of the range. The reverse faults are locally controlled by preexisting zones of weakness, such as older faults and foliation. However, the comparatively simple gross structure of the Sierra Madre fault zone is superimposed upon a complex preexisting structure and appears to be unrelated to the geologic evolution of basement rocks exposed within the range.

Uplift has also resulted from arching as shown by northward dips of as much as 30 degrees in lower Pleistocene alluvial deposits along the northeastern margin of the range. The San Andreas fault extends across the northeastern part of the range but shows little evidence of direct participation in range uplift. For example, mountainous terrain is present on both sides of the San Andreas fault in the Es

Wrightwood area with no evidence of differential vertical displacement along the fault.

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LATE TERTIARY NONMARINE ROCKS, DEVIL'S PUNCHBOWL AND CAJON VALLEY, SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA

Michael O. Woodburne
University of California
Riverside, California 92502

ABSTRACT

The Devil's Punchbowl, the type locality of the Tertiary Punchbowl Formation, is located near Valyermo, California, and occurs on the southwest side of the San Andreas Fault. Exposures of similar rocks in Cajon Valley, located about 33 km (20 miles) to the southeast, occur on the northeast side of the fault and previous workers have suggested that these exposures indicate about 33 km of right-lateral slip on the San Andreas Fault.

The two rock units differ in age and are not correlative. Both were deposited by streams flowing from the northeast or west. Both contain locally derived, mainly "granitic" clastic debris, but volcanic and metavolcanic cobbles found in one of two terranes may have had a more distant source on the Mojave Desert. The "Sidewinder Volcanic Series" near Victorville may have been the source of the metavolcanic rocks in the Cajon Valley succession, but the source of the Devil's Punchbowl volcanic clasts is more obscure. It is unlikely that the Devil's Punchbowl was aligned with Cajon Valley during the times when either of their sediments were being deposited. Whether the two areas were aligned at different times during the Tertiary involves consideration of the amount and timing of right-lateral slip on the San Andreas Fault.

INTRODUCTION

Noble (1953, 1954a) described the geology and stratigraphy in the Pearland and Valyermo quadrangles, southern California (Fig. 1). One of the important Cenozoic stratigraphic units was designated as the Punchbowl Formation, the exposures of which are displayed in the spectacular Devil's Punchbowl found

in the Los Angeles County Park located southwest of Valyermo. In the Pearland Quadrangle, Punchbowl rocks occur southwest of the San Andreas Fault; in the Valyermo area, they occur both northeast and southwest of the fault, according to Noble (1953, 1954a). Because some or all of the Punchbowl rocks in the Pearland area and those north of the San Andreas in the Valyermo area appear to be of different lithologic composition, provenance and, probably, age than the sediments in the type area (Woodburne, 1975a and b), only the type Punchbowl Formation is considered in the present report (see also the article by Allan Barrows in this volume).

Additionally, Noble (1954b) correlated the type Punchbowl Formation with sediments of generally similar character in Cajon Valley (Fig. 1), located about 33 km (20 miles) to the southeast of the Devil's Punchbowl. The Cajon Valley rocks were studied further by Woodburne and Golz (1972). In contrast to the sediments in the type area, the Cajon Valley rocks occur on the northeast side of the San Andreas, and various workers have cited these now disjunct outcrop areas as evidence for about 33 km of post-depositional right-lateral slip on the San Andreas Fault. Woodburne and Golz (1972) indicate that the two Punchbowl units differ in stratigraphic detail and age so that they do not directly record the amount of separation on

Figure 1. Generalized geologic map of western Transverse Ranges, from Cajon Pass to Soledad Pass. At this scale, the Vaqueros (?) Formation occurs in a minute outcrop in the southern third of Cajon Valley. After Woodburne and Golz (1972).

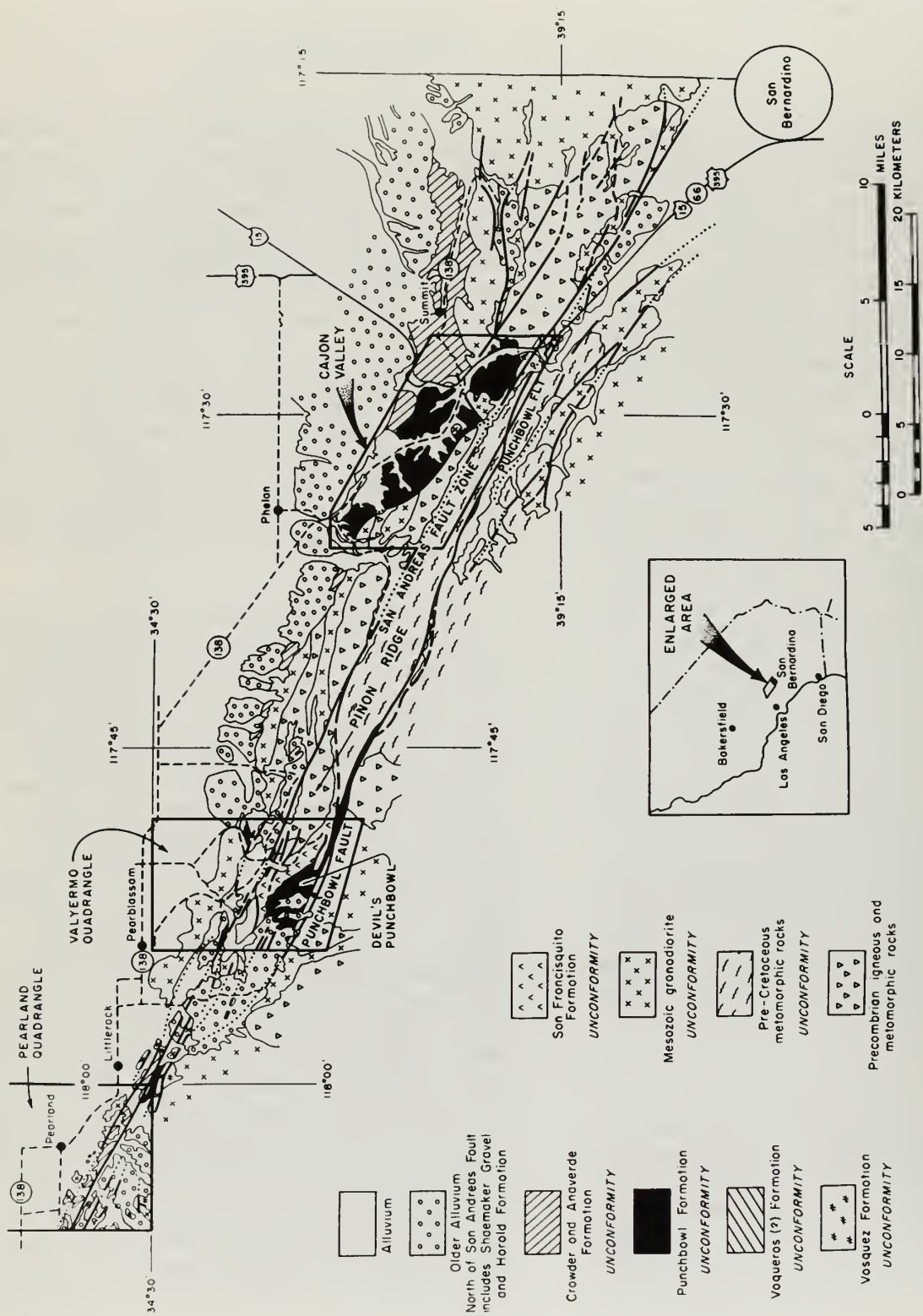


Fig. 1

h fault. Resolution of this question involves further considerations such as h tectonic-depositional histories of h two areas and their respective paleogeographic development. This paper sets u some of the stratigraphic and other tributes of the Punchbowl Formation in h Devil's Punchbowl and Cajon Valley n comments on possible interrelationships of the two areas.

DEVIL'S PUNCHBOWL

General Statement

The type Punchbowl Formation is a succession of nonmarine, generally coarse-grained sediments that unconformably overlies Paleocene marine strata (San Francisquito Formation) and are unconformably overlain by beds of Pleistocene age (Hold Formation: Noble, 1954a). The Punchbowl deposits, about 4,000 feet thick, are folded into an asymmetric west-dipping syncline. This syncline is sharply truncated on the southwest by the Punchbowl Fault (Fig. 1), marked by a thick, conspicuous, white gouge zone.

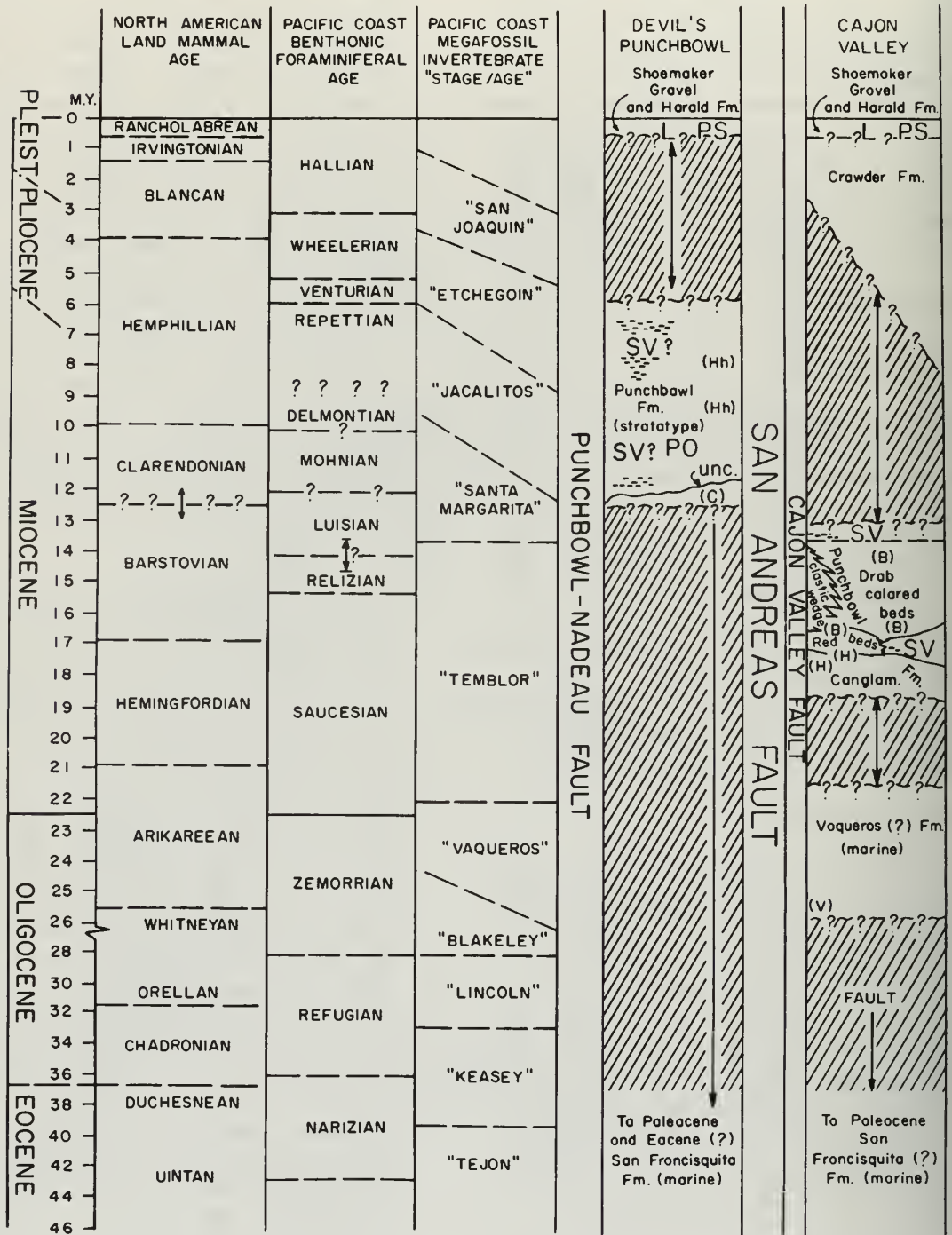
Stratigraphy and Age

Noble (1954a) divided the type Punchbowl Formation into two members. The lower member, about 330 m (1,000 ft.) thick, is composed mainly of white to light buff arkosic conglomerate and conglomeratic sandstone, with a few beds of fine-grained sandstone. Some of the conglomerate beds are very coarse-grained, with subangular to subrounded pebbles, cobbles, and boulders up to 2 feet in diameter. Most of these larger clasts are quartz diorite gneiss and granodiorite, possibly derived from pre-Tertiary basement rocks in Piñon Ridge, located about one mile east of the syncline. Noble (1954a) suggested that these Punchbowl clasts were similar to basement rocks found southeast of the Punchbowl Fault, but Pelka (1971) indicated that the formation was deposited in a westerly direction rather

than from the south. As such, the granodiorite and quartz diorite gneiss found in Piñon Ridge is a likely source for the Punchbowl clasts. Other, less abundant, clasts are cobbles of sandstone reworked from the underlying San Francisquito Formation, and boulders of "polka-dot" cordierite granite with no presently known source (Pelka, 1971). Some of the cobbles of the lower member are clasts of "meta" latite and quartz latite ash-flow tuff, apparently reworked from the San Francisquito Formation, that resemble rocks present in the "Sidewinder Volcanic Series," north of Victorville (written commun., 1974, Katherine J. Barrows, Department of Geology, Univ. of Calif., Los Angeles, and Allan G. Barrows, California Division of Mines and Geology, Los Angeles).

At the very base of the Punchbowl succession, and separated from overlying rocks by an unconformity according to Noble (1954a), is a reddish-purple sandstone unit that contains great amounts of material derived from the underlying San Francisquito Formation. Noble (1954a) nevertheless included this basal unit in the Punchbowl Formation and remains of a fossil horse, Plihippus cf. P. tehonensis have been recovered from the sediments. On this basis, the base of the type Punchbowl Formation has been assigned Clarendonian age (Tedford and Downs, 1965; Woodburne and Golz, 1972). Other fossils, taken about 330 m (1,000 ft.) above the base of the formation, occur near the top of the lower member or the base of the upper member. These fossils include remains of Procamelus (camel), Neohipparion and Plihippus (horses), Plioceros (antelope) and Plionictis (weasel). The fossils are comparable to those found elsewhere in mammalian faunas of Hemphillian age (Woodburne and Golz, 1972); the age of the lower member of the Punchbowl Formation ranges from Clarendonian to about Hemphillian depending on the exact stratigraphic position of the second fossil assemblage.

**CORRELATION OF PUNCHBOWL FORMATION, DEVIL'S PUNCHBOWL
AND CAJON VALLEY, SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA.**



EXOTIC COBBLE TYPES INDICATED
BY SYMBOLS

- L = MT. LOWE GRANODIORITE
- PS = PELONA SCHIST
- PO = "POLKA-DOT" CORDIERITE GRANITE
- SV = "SIDEWINDER VOLCANIC SERIES"

(Hh), (C), (B), (H) = STRATIGRAPHIC POSITION OF FOSSIL
MAMMAL REMAINS, CORRESPONDING TO EQUIVALENT
LAND MAMMAL AGE.

Fig. 2

The upper member of the formation is at least 830 m (2,500 ft.) thick. It gradationally overlies the lower member and generally contains, in contrast, coarser beds of coarse-grained sandstone and more interbedded layers of grayish-brown to greenish-brown biotitic arkosic sandstone, fine-grained sandstone and coarser beds of yellowish-to reddish-brown sandstone. The clastic composition of the upper member is generally similar to that of the lower, but there appear to be fewer clasts derived from the San Francisco Formation, and the polka-dot white cobbles seem to be absent from the upper member, but perhaps the lowest part of the upper member. The upper unit also contains an abundance of felsitic to porphyritic volcanic rock clasts not found in the lower. Fossils found in the upper member, about 260 m above its base, are also of Hemphillian age: *Procamelus*, *Elphippus*, *Plioceros*, and *Osteoborus* (*O. cyonoides* (bone-crushing dog)). The remaining stratigraphically higher parts of the type Punchbowl Formation are dated, but the age range of the whole formation is from Clarendonian to at least Hemphillian.

Mode of Deposition and Source

Welka (1971) has indicated that the type Punchbowl Formation was deposited in a narrow valley only a few miles wide in that the clastic debris was derived from the east. Particularly, but not only, in the lower member of the formation the abundance and large size of the cobbles and boulders attest to at least periodic episodes of high stream competence. Inasmuch as many of the boulders are similar to rocks now exposed in Piñon Ridge, this terrane may have been the source of part of the clasts in the Punchbowl Formation. Others came from local presumably local outcrops of San Francisquito Formation, but the smaller cobbles of metavolcanic rock in the upper member may have been transported over greater distances. If further studies bear out the suggestion of Robinson and

Woodburne (1971), these volcanic rocks may have originated in the "winder Volcanic Series" near Katherine J. Barrows and A. Barrows (written communication, 1971, see above), suggest that this is not the case.

The type Punchbowl Formation appears to have been deposited by a stream or streams that flowed generally westward from the Mojave Desert across the present traces of the San Andreas and Punchbowl faults. At times, the competence of this drainage system was relatively high, and local relief (such as in Piñon Ridge) probably was fairly rugged.

CAJON VALLEY

General Statement

The Punchbowl Formation in Cajon Valley is a nonmarine succession about 2,600 m (8,000 ft.) thick. Although similar to the formation in the Devil's Punchbowl in that both display ledge-forming arkosic conglomeratic sandstones that weather with a pitted surface, the composition of the sandstones and the overall stratigraphy of the deposits in Cajon Valley differs from the rocks in the Devil's Punchbowl. As shown in Fig. 2, the formation is of different age in the two areas; Clarendonian and Hemphillian in the Devil's Punchbowl, Hemingfordian and Barstovian in Cajon Valley.

In Cajon Valley the Punchbowl Formation unconformably overlies marine rocks referred to the Vaqueros(?) Formation, and also rests on pre-Tertiary basement. The Punchbowl is unconformably overlain by the Crowder Formation. The age of the Crowder is not known; its upper part is gradational with deposits correlated with the Harold Formation, and on that basis is of Rancholabrean (late Pleistocene) age, although the lower part of the Crowder may be older than that. The marine Paleocene(?) San Francisquito(?) Formation also occurs in Cajon Valley, but it is in fault contact with the

Punchbowl rocks. See Noble (1954b) and Woodburne and Golz (1972) for additional comments on the stratigraphy of pre- and post-Punchbowl sediments in Cajon Valley.

In southern Cajon Valley, the Punchbowl Formation is truncated by the San Andreas Fault. The folded and faulted Tertiary succession is also bounded on the south and east by blocks of pre-Tertiary basement rock, and one of these stands up through the sedimentary cover near the junction of California State Highway 138 and Interstate 15. Near the top of this hill, marine rocks of the Vaqueros(?) Formation now occur at an elevation of over 1300 m (4,000 ft.). Farther northwest, the Cajon Valley Fault brings pre-Tertiary basement against the Punchbowl sediments; the sediments are less deformed in this part of the valley and generally dip northeastward before disappearing beneath the Crowder Formation or Quaternary alluvium.

Stratigraphy and Age

The lower part of the Punchbowl Formation consists almost completely of pale gray, white, or light pinkish-tan arkosic conglomeratic sandstone and sandstone beds that contain lenticular layering, cross stratification, and channel features typical of fluvial sediments. The basal part of the succession, about 300 m (1000 ft.) thick, is generally weakly resistant and is unfossiliferous. The upper part of the conglomeratic sandstone sequence is well indurated and resistant, and forms conspicuous hogbacks and cliffs, the exposed faces of which bear conspicuous weathered pits and hollows up to 1 m in diameter. Toward the top of the section there are increasingly numerous interbedded lenticular layers of dark red to purple pebbly sandstone. The hogbacks are particularly well exposed in the central part of the valley along California State Highway 138. The resistant, hogback-forming, part of the sequence is about 600 m (1800 ft.) thick and has

yielded in the upper few feet fossil remains of Merychippus cf. M. tehachapiensis, a horse elsewhere commonly found in mammalian faunas of late Hemingfordian age (Fig. 2). The underlying exposures of the Punchbowl are not dated. These rocks are at least of Hemingfordian age, but might be older. Most of the coarser-grained clastic constituents of these deposits (units Tp¹ and Tp² of Woodburne and Golz, 1972) are mainly pebbles, cobbles and rarer boulders of granodiorite and quartz monzonite. Next in abundance are small chips and often tabular fragments of dark, aphanitic, metamorphic rock. These materials are probably derived from basement rock exposures similar to those now found in the western San Bernardino Mountains. Rare clasts of fine-grained sandstone may have been reworked from the Vaqueros(?) Formation that underlies part of this succession in southern Cajon Valley. Other clastic materials have an undetermined origin, possibly being reworked from pre-existing Punchbowl sediments, but other rare metavolcanic clasts may have been derived from the "Sidewinder Volcanic Series", now exposed near Victorville, about 40 km to the northeast (Robinson and Woodburne, 1971).

A thinner unit, usually less than 300 m (1000 ft.) thick, gradationally overlies the resistant hogbacks. This unit (Tp³ of Woodburne and Golz, 1972; and Red Beds of Fig. 2), is characterized by resistant arkosic conglomerate and conglomeratic sandstone beds that are interbedded with those of less resistant coarse- to fine-grained arkosic to biotitic sandstone and siltstone. The more resistant beds are light gray, tan, or buff in color, but most of the less resistant fine-grained sandstone and siltstone beds are red to reddish brown. This unit is generally less prominent topographically than the resistant sandstone succession and is well exposed along the Southern Pacific Railroad cuts adjacent to and east of California State Highway 138 in central

in Valley. In the southern part of the valley, the red siltstone unit interfingers with the hogback forming beds. In this area, south of Sullivan's Curve and the A.T.S.F. Railroad and southwest of Cajon Junction, fossil remains including Merychippus cf. M. tehachapiensis have been found through most of the unit, and it appears to be of late Hemingfordian age here. Farther northwest, where the Southern Pacific Railroad cuts across Highway 138, other fossils, including an oreodont, Brachycrus buwaldi, appear to be of early Barstovian age. If these age assignments are correct, the red siltstone unit of the Punchbowl Formation is temporally diachronous, a rather unexpected situation in an area where fluvial deposits were accumulating in a tectonically active environment. Most of the red siltstone and sandstone sequences occur gradationally between unaltered white conglomeratic sandstones, and show progressive upward alteration of hornblende and biotite grains and increase in iron oxide staining. These sequences are commonly occasionally overlain by another unaltered white conglomeratic sandstone. The red-colored units in this and other parts of the Punchbowl Formation are interpreted to represent a time of exposure of the sediments to subaerial weathering (Woodburne and Golz, 1972, p. 23-26).

In southern Cajon Valley, the red siltstone unit is erosionally cut out by an interval of coarse-grained, biotitic, felsic conglomerate and conglomeratic sandstone beds with a mottled maroon and gray, grayish-buff, and more rarely, buff color. This unit (Tp⁴ of Woodburne and Golz, 1972; SV opposite Red Beds of Fig. 2) is about 230 m (700 ft.) thick, and contains nearly equal amounts of felsitic and metavolcanic rock. The metavolcanic rock clasts are thought to have been derived from the "Sidewinder Volcanic Series" (Robinson and Woodburne, 1977). Large imbricated boulders of syenite and diorite can be seen in the mottled conglomerate unit, about one-half mile

north of Cajon Campground, along the A.T.S.F. Railroad tracks. These and other imbricated cobbles and boulders in the Punchbowl Formation indicate that it was deposited by streams flowing generally to the southwest across the present traces of the San Andreas and Punchbowl Faults (Fig. 1). The age of this unit is not known. Because it stratigraphically truncates rocks of Hemingfordian age (red siltstone unit) in the area, and interfingers northward with drab colored rocks (see below) that contain fossils of Barstovian age, the mottled conglomerate unit probably is of that age as well. The mottled conglomeratic unit is laterally gradational with generally finer-grained Punchbowl deposits (noted above) and is considered to reflect the locus of a major stream channel in the Punchbowl Formation in southern Cajon Valley. In central and northwestern Cajon Valley a heterogeneous series of generally drab-colored deposits (see above) unconformably overlies the Hemingfordian to Barstovian age Red Bed sequence. The drab colored succession (Tp⁵ of Woodburne and Golz, 1972) consists of mottled maroon and gray conglomerate and conglomeratic sandstone beds, interbedded with layers of purplish green and green coarse-to medium-grained, sandstone, freshwater limestone and more rarely, beds of dense black mudstone, and plant-bearing lignite. Most of the beds are poorly resistant. Fossils from the drab-colored succession include Archaeohippus, Merychippus, (horses), Aepycamelus (camel), Pseudoparablastomeryx (antelope) and a peccary. These fossils are thought to be of late, but not latest Barstovian age.

A clastic wedge (Fig. 2; Tp^{5a} of Woodburne and Golz, 1972) interfingers with the drab-colored sequence adjacent to the Cajon Valley fault in the northwestern part of the valley. The strongly upturned beds can be seen from the Oil Road turnoff of Highway 138. The constituents of this wedge-shaped unit are mainly angular cobbles and pebbles of

granodiorite gneiss, gneiss, marble, and quartzite. The unit, at most about 960 m (2900 ft.) thick, appears to reflect uplift along the Cajon Valley Fault, with clastic debris having been shed eastward from the pre-Tertiary basement terrane now exposed west of the fault. No fossils are known from these beds; inasmuch as they interfinger with Barstovian age sediments of the drab-colored sequence, the clastic wedge is interpreted to be of that age.

The stratigraphically highest deposits of the Punchbowl Formation crop out in central and northwestern Valley where they unconformably overlie the drab-colored beds (SV of Fig. 2; Tp⁶ of Woodburne and Golz, 1972), and are unconformably overlain by the Crowder Formation. The deposits are composed of white to pale gray and pale yellow conglomerate, conglomeratic sandstone, sandstone, and interbedded pale gray to reddish brown and brownish green fine-grained sandstone, siltstone and pale green mudstone. The sequence is about 300 m (900 ft.) thick, and contains abundant clasts of dark green and maroon porphyritic tuff and latite. No fossils have been found in this unit. Woodburne and Golz (1972) suggest that it is of Barstovian rather than Clarendonian age. Immediately subjacent rocks are of Barstovian, but not latest Barstovian, age.

Mode of Deposition and Source

Marine rocks of Paleocene(?) and late Oligocene age occur in Cajon Valley (Fig. 2), but by the Hemingfordian or possibly somewhat earlier, nonmarine conditions prevailed. Based on the available paleocurrent data, the Punchbowl Formation in Cajon Valley was deposited by a stream or streams that flowed generally southwestward across the present traces of the San Andreas and Punchbowl faults. The Cajon Valley basin eventually accumulated a succession of largely fluvial deposits that attained a thickness of nearly 2600 m

(8000 ft.). The lenticular bedding, local unconformities and conglomeratic channels in the lower 600 m (2000 ft.) of section indicate that deposition was episodic, rather than continuous at a given location. The large size of the cobbles and boulders attest to periods of relatively high depositional energy. By the late Hemingfordian and locally in the early Barstovian (Red Beds) there were longer periods of reduced depositional energy, and many of the fine-grained sandstone and siltstone beds were subaerially oxidized. Many of the deposits in the upper 2000 m (6000 ft.) of the Punchbowl Formation can be interpreted to represent sets of sequences that become finer-grained upward. The uppermost siltstone layers of one sequence are commonly unconformably overlain by beds of conglomeratic sandstone that comprise the base of the next sequence. The beds of lignite and limestone probably reflect local ponding, some of the drab green-colored siltstone layers also may have been formed in a lacustrine environment. The interval of quieter deposition in the upper 2000 m (6000 ft.) of the Punchbowl Formation may reflect episodic partial or complete damming of the Cajon Valley streams by tectonic activity on the San Andreas and Punchbowl faults, but this remains to be demonstrated. Local tectonic activity on the Cajon Valley Fault during the Barstovian, however, is shown by the clastic wedge in the northwestern part of the valley. The very coarse-grained textures and imbricated boulders of the mottled conglomerate unit in southeastern Cajon Valley are interpreted to mean that a vigorous stream flowed southwestward across the traces of the San Andreas and Punchbowl faults at about the same time as, or perhaps slightly earlier than, the deposition of the clastic wedge to the northwest.

With the exception of the clastic wedge, the available evidence indicates that the Punchbowl Formation in Cajon Valley was deposited by streams that

ed southwestward. Many of the granite boulders and cobbles probably derived from the adjacent San Bernardino Mountains and the dark-colored is of fine-grained metasedimentary could have come from the San Bernardino terrane, or pre-Tertiary sediments that now also occur in the vicinity of Victorville about 40 km (25 miles) to the northeast. Some of the metavolcanic cobbles that occur in the Punchbowl Formation may have been contributed by the "Sidewinder Volcanic Series" (Robinson and Woodburne, 1971).

DISCUSSION

Whether the Punchbowl Formation in Cajon Valley deserves to be designated by that name depends on the likelihood that the Cajon Valley basin was related to that of the type Punchbowl Formation. Although the two sequences differ in lithologic and stratigraphic detail, they are more similar to each other than to any other rock units in this general area. "It is conceivable that the recent Punchbowl terranes represent different parts of a more or less continuous depositional basin in which the normal Punchbowl type of deposition and subsequent Punchbowl deformation, began earlier in the southeast [Cajon Valley] but lasted longer in the northwest [Devil's Punchbowl]" (Woodburne and Golz, 1972, p. 40). Marine rocks of Paleocene age are definitely proven in Cajon Valley and of different lithology occur in each of the two areas, so it is at least possible that the Devil's Punchbowl was approximately aligned with Cajon Valley at that time. The considerably different late Paleocene tectonic and depositional histories of the two areas appear to rule out the possibility of their juxtaposition after the Paleocene, at least for the various times when deposition is known to have occurred. If this is the case, and if Tertiary slip on the Devil's Punchbowl and San Andreas faults was right lateral, the Devil's Punchbowl must have been located somewhere north-

west of Cajon Valley when either of the Punchbowl successions were being deposited. Woodburne and Golz (1972, p. 40) suggest that the Devil's Punchbowl could have been within 16 or 25 km (10 or 15 miles) of its present location in the Clarendonian and Hemphillian and still be in a position to receive its clastic constituents without interference from rock terranes exposed by tectonic events in Cajon Valley which apparently was undergoing uplift and erosion at that time. Should this scheme be viable, there may be some justification for retaining the Punchbowl designation for the Cajon Valley succession. The other alternative, that in the Clarendonian or Hemphillian the Devil's Punchbowl was located some distance to the southeast of Cajon Valley, might make it sufficiently unlikely that the two successions are related so as to require a new formation name for the rocks in Cajon Valley. The answer ultimately rests on the amount and timing of right-lateral slip on the Punchbowl and San Andreas faults. Some aspects of this problem are discussed in Woodburne (1975a).

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THE SAN ANDREAS FAULT ZONE IN THE JUNIPER HILLS QUADRANGLE, SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA

by Allan G. Barrows
California Division of Mines
and Geology

ABSTRACT

Detailed geologic mapping in progress in the Juniper Hills quadrangle is the basis for a discussion of the geology of the San Andreas fault zone which ranges from the Little Rock fault on the north to the Carr Canyon and Southern Nadeau faults on the south. Right-lateral displacements of five miles for Quaternary rocks and 10 miles for Tertiary units are inferred from this mapping. Western facies Punchbowl Formation occurs both north and south of the San Andreas but only north of the Northern Nadeau fault. The eastern facies Punchbowl Formation occurs only between the Southern Nadeau and Carr Canyon faults. Tertiary units of uncertain correlation, possibly younger than the upper member of the type Punchbowl Formation, are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

A detailed geologic map of the northern two-thirds of the Juniper Hills quadrangle is being prepared in financial cooperation with Los Angeles County. This quadrangle lies between the excellent geologic maps of Levi Noble (Pearland Quadrangle, 1953; Valyermo Quadrangle, 1954a). The San Andreas fault zone, following Noble's designation, ranges in width from about 6,000 feet on the west to about 2,000 feet on the east. Mapping with large-scale aerial photos, including black-and-white and color, has made it possible to depict both the detailed geology of the fault zone and the surficial features (see Fig. 1) that define the most recently active traces of the San Andreas fault. Recognition of buried faults has been inferred from results of several magnetic and seismic surveys. Figure 1 is

generalized from 1:9,600 scale maps. Structural data and differentiation of most of the Quaternary units has been omitted because of the small scale of the figure.

GEOLOGY

General Statement

It is convenient to separate the discussion of the geology into sections dealing with each side of the San Andreas fault because of the dissimilarity of the stratigraphy across the fault (Fig. 1). The northern boundary of the San Andreas fault zone is considered the Little Rock fault (Noble, 1953), although there is evidence of young faulting north of that fault that suggests the zone may be as wide here as it is at Palmdale.

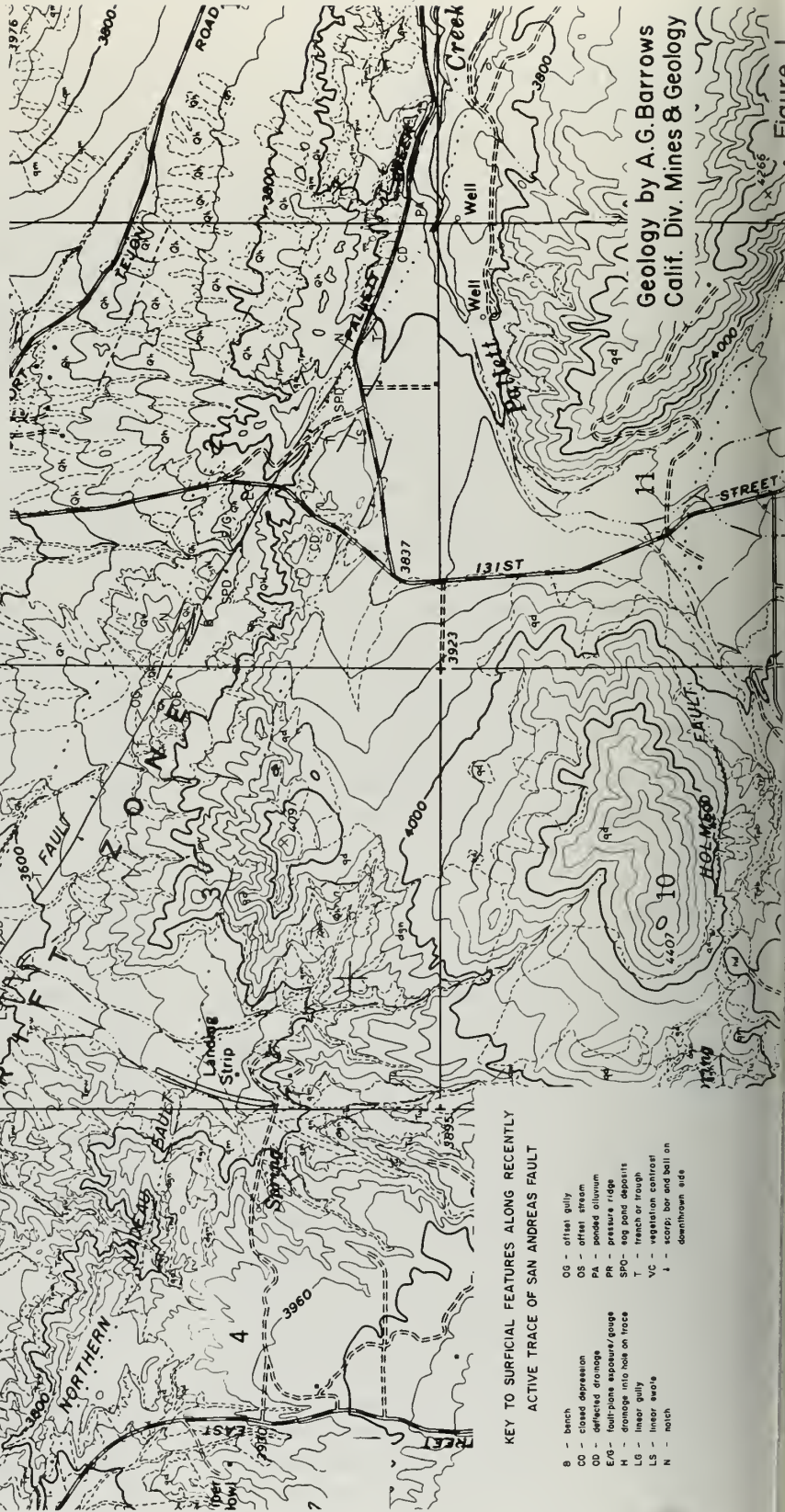
On the west the Carr Canyon fault is the southern boundary of the San Andreas fault zone, whereas on the east the Northern Nadeau fault is defined as the boundary. It appears that the Carr Canyon fault, which diverges southward going southeast, may be the western continuation of the Punchbowl fault of the Valyermo area. Likewise, the Southern Nadeau fault may be the western continuation of the Holmes fault of the Valyermo area. The Northern Nadeau fault merges with the San Andreas fault east of the Juniper Hills quadrangle.

North of the San Andreas Fault

Northward from the Little Rock fault, a batholith of leucocratic granitic rocks, predominantly quartz monzonite, containing inclusions of metasedimentary rocks including skarn, and small bodies of locally layered and orbicular gabbro, extends into the Mojave Desert.

This is a detailed topographic map of a region featuring the San Andreas Fault. The map is oriented with North at the top. Key features include:

- San Andreas Fault:** A prominent dashed line running diagonally from the upper left towards the lower right, labeled "SAN ANDREAS FAULT".
- Topography:** Contour lines indicate elevation, with labels such as 3400, 3600, 3800, 4000, and 4200 feet.
- Landmarks:**
 - Swimming Pool:** Located in the upper right quadrant.
 - Landing Strip:** Situated in the lower right quadrant.
 - Spring:** Located near the bottom center.
 - BM 3506:** A benchmark point in the lower left.
 - Rocky:** A label near the bottom left.
 - Well:** Located in the upper left.
- Grid:** The map is overlaid with a grid of letters (A through Z) and numbers (1 through 30).
- Scale:** A scale bar at the bottom indicates distances in miles, ranging from 0 to 10.
- Other Labels:** "NORTHERN", "EAST", "WEST", "SOUTH", "N.E.", "S.W.", "E.", "W.", "N.", "S." are scattered across the map.

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Principi

South of the Little Rock fault the oldest rocks exposed are small "slivers" of sheared diorite and extremely crushed white granitic rocks adjacent to the San Andreas fault. Two distinctly different Tertiary non-marine sedimentary units occur within the tectonic block bounded by the Little Rock and San Andreas faults. Red, white, and buff arkosic sandstone and brown, gypsiferous clay shale constitute the lower-middle Pliocene Anaverde Formation. The easternmost exposure of this formation is a roadcut along 106th Street where Anaverde clay shale is bounded on the south by a fault that branches from the San Andreas. Eastward from just west of 106th Street small outcrops of smashed (offset cobbles) and crushed white sandstone and pebbly sandstone appear that is correlated with material mapped south of the San Andreas fault as Western Facies Punchbowl Formation. Differences between western and type facies Punchbowl Formation are discussed below. Western Facies rocks are nowhere seen in contact with type Punchbowl and their age is unknown. It may be younger than type Punchbowl and possibly even coeval with Anaverde Formation from which it is also separated by faults.

Poorly bedded, light-brown, moderately consolidated siltstone through pebble conglomerate of the Harold Formation is abundant east of 106th Street. Overlying both Anaverde and Harold formations is a distinctive red-brown weathering boulder gravel characterized by large (up to 6 feet) well-rounded boulders and cobbles of porphyritic granodiorite ("Mt. Lowe" type) and black hornblende gabbro and hornblende. The easternmost extent of this gravel is one-half mile east of 106th Street. Because the boulder gravels were derived from coarse piedmont fan deposits in the Pearland quadrangle (Noble, 1953) west of Littlerock Creek they are inferred to have been offset right-laterally about five miles during movements of the block that lies between the San Andreas and Little Rock faults.

South of the San Andreas Fault

The pre-Tertiary rocks are more varied south of the San Andreas fault. Hornblende quartz diorite, correlated with Pinyon Ridge granodiorite of the Valye quadrangle (Noble, 1954a), is widespread, especially in large, wedge-shaped blocks bounded by segments of the Nadeau fault system. Bodies of dioritic gneiss and related metaigneous rocks locally exhibit extremely complex structures. East of 106th Street inclusions of metamorphic rocks (mica schist, marble) are present in the diorite. Granite also crops out there. South of the Carr Canyon fault quartz monzonite to granodioritic rocks have intruded black hornblende-rich diorite.

The oldest Tertiary rocks (in Fig. 1) are Oligocene andesitic volcanic rocks of the Vasquez Formation that intruded and were deposited upon weathered quartz monzonite south of the Carr Canyon fault. Nowhere in the Juniper Hills area do known Punchbowl rocks rest depositionally upon Vasquez volcanics; these two units are everywhere separated by the Carr Canyon fault.

Punchbowl Formation sandstone, pebbly sandstone, and minor red siltstone and nodular limestone, similar in clast composition to the upper member of the Punchbowl in the Valyermo quadrangle is recognized only north of the Carr Canyon fault and south of the Southern Nadeau fault.

Between the San Andreas and Northern Nadeau faults the only Tertiary unit is the Western Facies Punchbowl Formation. The most important difference between western and type facies Punchbowl Formation is the dissimilarity of composition and the proportions of cobbles and pebbles in each. The Western Facies contains clast types not found in the type facies and exhibits greater variability among stratigraphic units. Distinctive rock types such as alkali syenite, blue-quartz granite, and serpentinite are present in addition to common leucocratic plutonic rocks, and gray-green (Pelona-like) meta-

shist. Both facies contain metavolcanic clasts and abundant unmetamorphosed volcanic clasts ranging from rhyolite to andesite. Most and possibly all of the metavolcanic clasts were reworked from conglomerate lenses in the Paleocene San Francisquito Formation (especially the "meta" latite and quartz latite ash-flow tuffs). Some of the unmetamorphosed volcanic clasts were hydrothermally altered and the vitric portions of at least one cast type have been weakly to moderately solubilized to mordenite and/or clinoptilolite. Two unmetamorphosed types were derived from the San Francisquito Formation. Some andesites resemble those of the Vasquez Formation, but the bulk of the volcanic clast types are not similar to rocks of the Vasquez Formation, San Francisquito Formation or the Sidewinder Volcanic Series. In addition to the above, both facies contain angular to well-rounded clasts of sandstone and pebbly conglomerate derived from the San Francisquito Formation (last petrography by Katherine J. Errows).

The easternmost exposures of the Western Facies Punchbowl Formation, south of the San Andreas fault, are 1.2 miles west of Palmett Creek. North of the San Andreas fault, a sliver of similar rocks exposed in a roadcut opposite Jackson Lake (near Big Pines) is inferred to have been offset along the fault 10 miles from the Juniper Hills quadrangle. Rocks mapped by Noble as Western Facies Punchbowl Formation in the Mountain Brook Ranch area of the Myermo quadrangle do not resemble typical Western Facies rocks as defined by Noble (1954a) and are probably Quaternary or older alluvial units possibly related to the Harold Formation.

Tertiary sedimentary rocks of uncertain correlation, predominantly soft, red and light brown siltstone with subordinate pebbly sandstone, are well exposed northwest of Cima Mesa and, off Figure 1, north of Cima Mesa Road. These rocks may belong to a facies of the Punchbowl Formation that is younger than the upper member of the type facies. In section 31 they are puzzling because they appear to overlie

the Carr Canyon fault which to the west cuts type Punchbowl Formation. An area of brown siltstone with minor maroon concretions in the southeast quarter of section 4 also differs from typical Punchbowl Formation. These rocks were called Vaqueros Formation by Noble (1954b) but they are unlike Vaqueros rocks near Cajon Valley and do not appear to be of marine origin. Unfortunately, determination of age and correlation of these units is difficult because no useful fossils have been found in any of the Tertiary rocks within the Juniper Hills area.

Harold Formation, the oldest Quaternary unit, is widespread south of the San Andreas fault. It is typically silty, loosely to moderately consolidated, and contains abundant gravel layers whose composition generally reflects the lithology of nearby underlying source rocks such as the Punchbowl and Vasquez formations. As Noble pointed out, Harold Formation was deposited on a surface of much lower local relief than exists today. Where bedding is well developed dips are typically gentle. The present distribution of Harold Formation implies that it may have covered much of the area in Figure 1. Accordingly, faulting, uplift, and erosion since Harold time has been extensive.

Several older Quaternary units, not labelled in Figure 1, have been mapped in the Juniper Hills quadrangle. These post-Harold units are generally coarse grained, reflecting the Pleistocene rise of the San Gabriel Mountains, and serve as records of continued tectonic unrest in this area.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Reviewed by James K. Kahle and Clifton H. Gray.

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RECENT FAULT FEATURES AND RELATED GEOLOGY, LEONA VALLEY AREA, SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA

by James E. Kahle

California Division of Mines and Geology
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ABSTRACT

Detailed mapping along 11.8 miles of the San Andreas fault zone in Leona Valley has revealed a variety of distinctive Quaternary units and has provided evidence for renaming part of the Anaverde Formation. In most places the San Andreas fault has been accurately located and the surprisingly abundant recent fault features, which were either formed or enhanced in 1857, have been recorded. Each fault has been mapped in one area forming a zone of faulting 50-150 feet wide. Pelona Schist is thrust over rocks of late Tertiary age along a fault mapped subparallel to the San Andreas trend. A brief discussion of localities where the San Andreas fault is well exposed and where fault features are plentiful is included.

INTRODUCTION

Detailed mapping of recent fault features and related geology is being completed along 11.8 miles of the San Andreas fault zone in Leona Valley. Work is continuing eastward on the 12 mile stretch between Leona Valley and the Juniper Hills quadrangle but is not discussed here. This project is partially supported by Los Angeles County and the U.S. Geological Survey. Mapping was done on low-sun and color air photos at nominal scales of 1:6,000 or 1:12,000. While the work was primarily aimed at accurate location of the most recently active fault traces and related physiographic features, it has been necessary to map the Quaternary and Tertiary rocks along the fault in considerable detail. This report stresses the number and density of recent fault features present along the San Andreas but a brief discussion of some of the rocks involved in repeated older movements is included. Figure 1 shows most of the

fault features found in the area but only the generalized terrane, which may be covered locally by thick alluvium, is labeled by name. Locations on the map are keyed to section numbers only, which do not repeat in the three townships covered. Twenty three bucket auger and two core-drill holes were drilled providing valuable data on depth of alluvium and concealed faults. Magnetic and low-energy seismic profiles were run but, in some cases, the results did not agree with the drilling data and these are being further analyzed. One core-hole drilled in the large sag-pond in the SW $\frac{1}{4}$ sec. 1, penetrated 93.5 feet of alluvium and contained wood-fragments from which radiocarbon dates may be obtained. Samples for pollen analysis taken from this core and from various other rock types are still being studied.

GEOLOGY

Pre-Tertiary crystalline rocks crop out on both sides of the San Andreas fault zone in this area and, though not mapped in detail, they were studied carefully so that the source or sources of the Tertiary and Quaternary units might be identified. The Pelona Schist has been adequately described by previous workers, notably Wallace (1949), Muehlberger and Hill (1958) and Dibblee (1961, 1967) and crops out only south of the San Andreas at the east end of the map area. The debris derived from the Pelona Schist in and adjacent to the map area, has two important characteristics. Muscovite schist clasts, with a distinctive silvery sheen, are very abundant and commonly are rounded to well-rounded blade or discoid in shape. Talc-actinolite and chlorite-albite schist is also very common.

The Portal Schist which crops out across the length of the area north of the San Andreas fault zone, was named and described in detail by Evans (1966). Most other authors have referred to these rocks as Pelona Schist but the differences described by Evans are believed to be significant. Typically, biotite rather than muscovite prevails and the clasts derived from outcrops in and adjacent to the map area are sub-rounded to angular and blocky to sub-spherical in shape. Blade or disc shaped clasts do not form because the source rocks are not well foliated and are strongly shattered.

The gneiss and diorite complex has been described by Wallace (1949), Dibblee (1961) and Evans (1966). Most of the debris being shed by this complex now is granular because weathering has deeply penetrated the parent rock. In the geologic past, however, the complex apparently produced pebble- and cobble-size debris which survived long enough to be deposited in some of the younger units described below. Much of this unit is covered by alluvium and fan deposits. Drilling south of the fault which runs between Messer Ranch and Bouquet Canyon Road, about 2,500 feet south of the San Andreas, has shown at least 70 feet of alluvium offset vertically against gneiss which crops out north of the fault.

The Tertiary Anaverde Formation has been mapped in detail. Throughout most of the area it lies between the north branch and the main branch of the San Andreas fault. On the extreme western end of the area a large sliver occurs south of the main trace. The Anaverde Formation has been subdivided, following Dibblee (1961), and includes, as a basal member, a hornblende diorite-rich breccia which appears to be partly sedimentary and partly tectonic and crops out mainly adjacent to the north branch of the San Andreas.

Tertiary rocks which crop out south of the San Andreas fault on the eastern end of the map area have been mapped as Anaverde Formation by Wallace (1949),

Dibblee (1961) and Evans (1966). These rocks are here named Ritter Formation on the basis of the composition of the clasts it contains. Members have not been recognized in the formation. The Ritter Formation consists of white to light gray conglomeratic arkose beds and fine- to coarse-grained beds of arkosic sandstone interbedded with dark gray to brown biotitic siltstone and very fine-grained sandstone. The cobbles, pebbles and grains of these rocks appear to have been derived exclusively from the gneiss-diorite complex. The Ritter Formation contains few clasts similar to those found in the Anaverde Formation elsewhere nor does it contain any schist or volcanic debris. Indeed, it is so closely allied to the gneiss-diorite complex that the soil or slopewash from either unit is nearly identical and it is commonly necessary to dig through the surface material to identify these units.

The Ritter Formation crops out from Bouquet Canyon Road eastward to the edge of the map area and has been seen by the author as far east as City Ranch (about one mile). It is bounded on the north by the San Andreas, except where small slivers north of the main trace are shown on the map. In the central part of its outcrop area, the Ritter Formation is in probable thrust-fault contact with the gneiss-diorite complex. From the boundary between sec. 23 and sec. 24 eastward Pelona Schist is thrust northward over the Ritter Formation. In most places the Ritter Formation is poorly exposed and is covered by alluvium and fan deposits or older terrace gravel. It may be as much as 1,500 feet thick, if not repeated by faulting, but the top and bottom are not exposed. It is in fault contact with adjacent rocks and is named after Ritter Canyon in the center of sec. 22. It is not well exposed where it is inferred to be thickest, between Ritter Canyon and Bouquet Canyon Road, so the type section is tentatively placed along the powerline road going south from Elizabeth Lake Road near the center of the E½ of sec. 23, T.6 N., R.13 W. The Ritter Formation is well exposed for about 800 feet along the

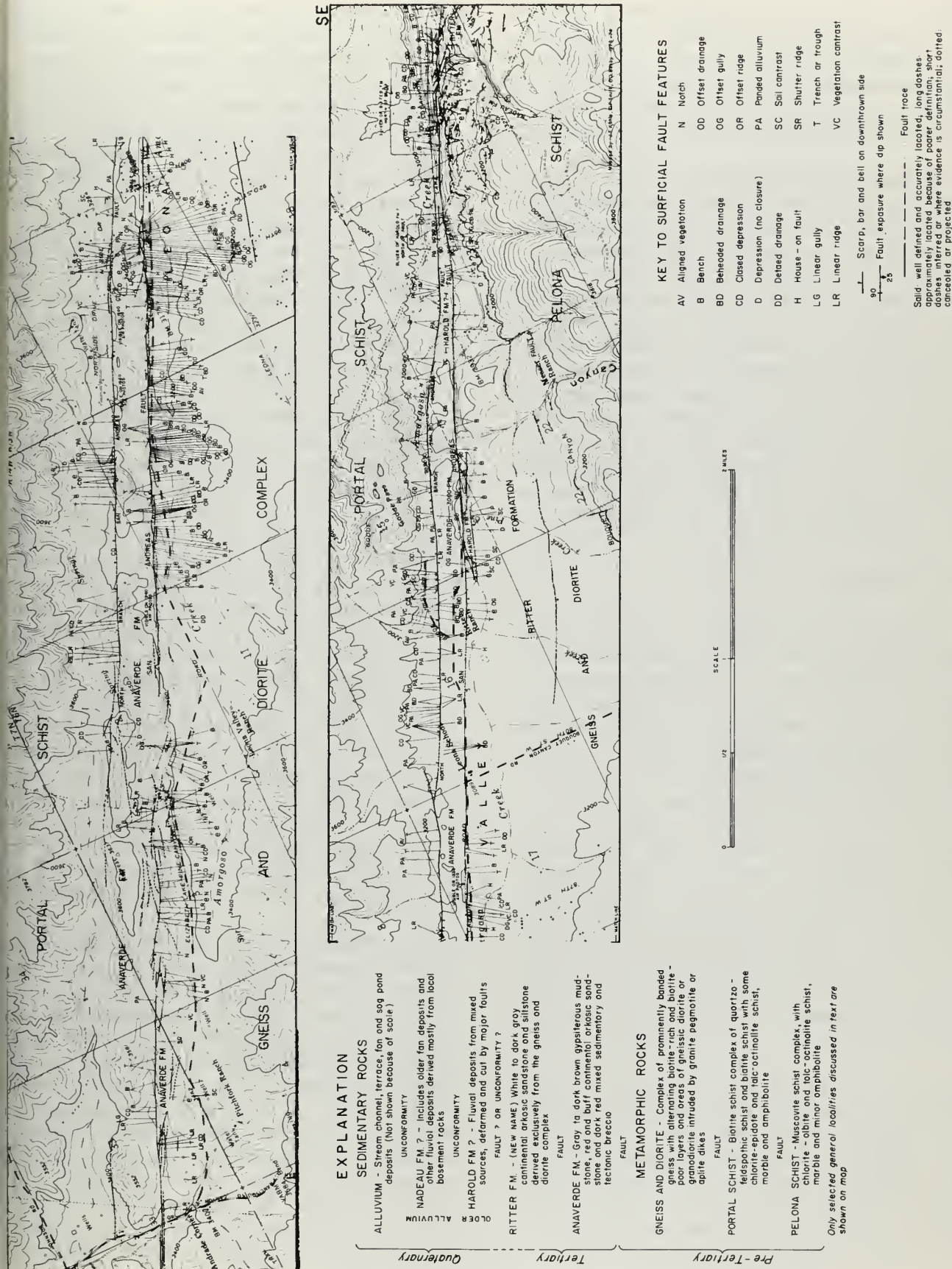


Figure 1. Annotated map of the San Andreas fault zone, Leona Valley area, southern California.

powerline road and its position under the Pelona Schist is clear. The age of the formation is unknown but it appears to be unconformably overlain by older alluvium in several places suggesting a late Pliocene or early Pleistocene age.

The Quaternary rocks in the area have been divided into a number of units on the basis of contained clast composition and percentage, but are not shown on Figure 1. Basically, three types are recognized; those possibly equivalent in age to the Harold Formation and the Nadeau Formation, mapped by Noble (1953) in the Pearland quadrangle, and younger alluvium. Units shown on Figure 1 as Harold Formation? and Nadeau Formation? are only parts of the widespread older alluvium in the area that have been selected to show their relationship to faulting. These units are discussed under fault features.

FAULT FEATURES

The density of fault features in the Leona Valley area is much greater than at first realized. Air photo interpretation is very important for accurately locating such features and establishing the continuity of fault traces. Older air photos of 1928 and 1940 vintage were invaluable where cultivation or construction has since obliterated the evidence. However, many of the features shown on Figure 1 could only be located on the ground and, particularly where obscured by sparse vegetation, were not visible on 1:6,000 scale low-sun photos. Many of the smaller features are presumed to have formed in 1857, the most recent reported movement on this portion of the San Andreas fault.

At the eastern end of the area in the SW $\frac{1}{4}$ sec. 24, within 150 feet of the main trace, subtle fault features are abundant. The map shows only selected features, mostly along the main fault, but the small branch faults shown represent chains of miniature closed depressions (less than 5 feet in diameter) along

small linear scarps (less than one foot relief) or lines of pebbles and cobbles which mark an abrupt change in slope angle. These branch faults diverge from the trend of the main trace by 10-20 degrees, oriented as Riedel shears on a right-lateral system (Tchalenko, 1970). Some can be followed as far as 800 feet but most are shorter than 300 feet and commonly separate different rock types. These form a zone of faulting 50-150 feet wide centered on the main trace. Similar branch faults occur elsewhere along the San Andreas but are well preserved at this location because of very little erosion due to low local relief.

Older alluvium marked Nadeau Formation on the map near the SW corner of sec. 24, consists of well-rounded coarse gravel derived exclusively from Pelona Schist and deposited on it. This location is near the western limit of these distinctive rocks which are presumed to have been deposited at a time when large amounts of schist debris were being washed across the San Andreas. Similar deposits were mapped by Noble (1953) in the Palmdale area, north of the San Andreas. This relationship was recognized by Dibblee (1960) but detailed mapping of these Quaternary units being done in the Palmdale area is defining this offset more closely. Other older alluvium, called Harold Formation? on the map, occurs at three locations and appears to be displaced by both the main San Andreas and the north branch of the San Andreas.

Good exposures of both branches of the San Andreas are indicated by attitudes shown on the map. On the main trace near the center of sec. 23 one excellent exposure reveals alluvium and rocks of the Anaverde Formation juxtaposed. It is a short walk from here to the north branch where rocks of the Harold Formation? (north of the fault) are faulted against alluvium (south of the fault) and are exposed three places in stream cuts. At the center of the boundary between sec. 23 and sec. 22 rocks of the Harold Formation are exposed and have been faulted

against rocks of the Anaverde Formation.

About 1,500 feet along Godde Hill Road north of the junction with Elizabeth Lake Road one can turn right (southeast) on a dirt road and drive along the north branch for about 0.6 mile viewing many fault features.

From just west of Bouquet Canyon Road to the corner of sec. 1, sec. 2, sec. 11, and sec. 12, Elizabeth Lake Road parallels the San Andreas fault. It is easily recognizable, except where construction has obliterated the surface evidence, and can be reached by a short walk north from the road. The areas where a high density of fault features is shown on the map may suggest some places to stop. About 1,500 feet west of the town of Leona Valley the main fault is well defined by numerous fault features. About a mile farther west, the fault is very close to the road and a large offset drainage channel marks the approximate center of a stretch along the fault which starts at the boundary between sec. 7 and sec. 12 and extends for about 2,000 feet. The variety of features visible here makes it well worth the walk. Offset gullies along this section are not always consistent but some of the smaller ones are presumed to have formed before the last movement on the fault in 1857 and seem to be offset about the same amount, on the order of 15 feet.

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THE SAN GABRIEL FAULT AND RIDGE BASIN, SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA

BY John C. Crowell

Geological Sciences Department
University of California
Santa Barbara, California 93106

ABSTRACT

During Pliocene time, the San Gabriel fault, now inactive, was a major strand of the San Andreas fault system and moved nearly continuously for several million years. Ridge Basin formed during this interval and apparently subsided as it traveled laterally alongside of a rising region near present Frazier Mountain. From this source area, coarse debris spilled north-eastward across the fault scarp and was strewn out to form the Violin Breccia. The breccia, along with other stratigraphic units constituting the thick section filling Ridge Basin (11,000 m or 36,000 ft) was deposited in beds overlapping toward the northwest. The oldest units (uppermost Miocene) of the Violin Breccia display about 30 km (18 mi) of right slip from their source area and about 4500 m (15,000 ft) of dip slip. In addition, on the southwest side of the fault, marine upper Miocene conglomerates (Modelo Formation) of the Ventura Basin sequence are displaced about 35 km (22 mi) from their source in the western San Gabriel Mountains. Older rocks and structural trends show a total of right slip of about 60 km (38 mi). The fault may have originated in the early Miocene, but was clearly active by the late Miocene.

As shown by unconformities, the San Gabriel fault died near the beginning of Pleistocene time and somewhat later than faults trending into Ridge Basin on the east such as the Clearwater and the Liebre. In the mid-Pleistocene, the Frazier Mountain thrust system was born, culminated, died and then was fold-

ed. Displacement on the San Andreas fault, adjacent to the north, vigorously ensued and continues today.

INTRODUCTION

The San Gabriel fault was a major branch of the San Andreas fault system, as shown by geologic relations along its northwestern part (Fig. 1) (Crowell, 1950, 1962). Here we shall review these briefly, summarizing information previously published but also drawing on data not yet in print. The interpretation of the fault's history is largely based on a reconstruction of its role in the formation of Ridge Basin. This is shown by the facies of the later Cenozoic sediments contained within the basin, by crosscutting relations of faults, and by unconformities. Following the origin of the San Gabriel fault in the early or middle Miocene, it was active continuously from late in the Miocene and died at the beginning of the Pleistocene. The fault moved through time primarily by right slip but with a marked dip-slip component.

THE SAN GABRIEL FAULT

At the surface, the San Gabriel fault zone can be followed as a continuous break for 130 km (80 mi) from a point south of Tejon Pass to within the San Gabriel Mountains and then along two branches to near San Antonio Canyon, about 20 km (12 mi) west of the San Jacinto and San Andreas faults in Cajon Pass (see map in guidebook pocket). Older rocks along its course are crushed but the fault itself is discrete and marked by hard black gouge up

to several meters in thickness (Ehlig, 1973). In the Ridge Basin region, the fault dips about 70° N.E. but elsewhere it is nearly vertical with a straight trace across rugged terrain. Across the lowlands between Castaic and Newall -- a region immediately underlain by alluvium and terrace deposits and in turn below these, by Plio-Pleistocene Saugus Formation -- the strata are younger than most of the movements on the fault zone. Its trace here is marked by a zone of braided small faults and steep dips within adjacent strata.

Within the western San Gabriel Mountains the fault zone branches. The northern branch continues on eastward and offsets several steeply dipping basement contacts about 22 km (14 mi) (Ehlig, 1966). Farther to the east the fault is displaced to the left by the younger north-northeast-trending San Antonio fault for about 3 km (2 mi), and trends on eastward into the Cajon Pass region. The southern branch extends southeastward through the basement terrain of the San Gabriel Mountains, and then bends easterly to join the fault zone fronting the range on the south (Dibblee, 1968). Although there is a mismatch in the basement terrain across the southern branch of the San Gabriel fault, substantiation of a suspected right-slip of about 38 km (24 mi) has not yet been recognized. This amount of displacement is presumably needed to bring the total right slip on the combined two branch faults to the

60 km (38 mi) recognized on the northwestern part of the San Gabriel fault zone. Recent displacements along the south front of the San Gabriel Mountains have resulted in thrust separations (Proctor and others, 1970) accompanying the elevation of the mountains. Several active faults in this region, including the Raymond and Cucamonga faults (Morton and Yerkes, 1974) have apparently moved more recently than parts of the Malibu Coast - Santa Monica fault system.

On the northwest the San Gabriel fault is overlapped by Plio-Pleistocene beds of the Hungry Valley Formation (Crowell, 1950 (Fig. 1). Along the trend of the fault a few kilometers on farther to the northwest these beds in turn are folded and overturned beneath branches of the Frazier Mountain system (the Dry Creek thrust; Fig. 1, loc. F), and the steep northeastern slope of Frazier Mountain itself is probably the uplifted, rotated, and exhumed San Gabriel fault scarp. Before the Frazier Mountain thrust system originated in Pleistocene time the San Gabriel fault no doubt extended on trend to the northwest to join the main San Andreas fault, and lies today at depth beneath Frazier Mountain.

RIDGE BASIN

A great thickness constituting about 11,000 m (36,000 ft) of marine and non-marine clastic sediments was deposited

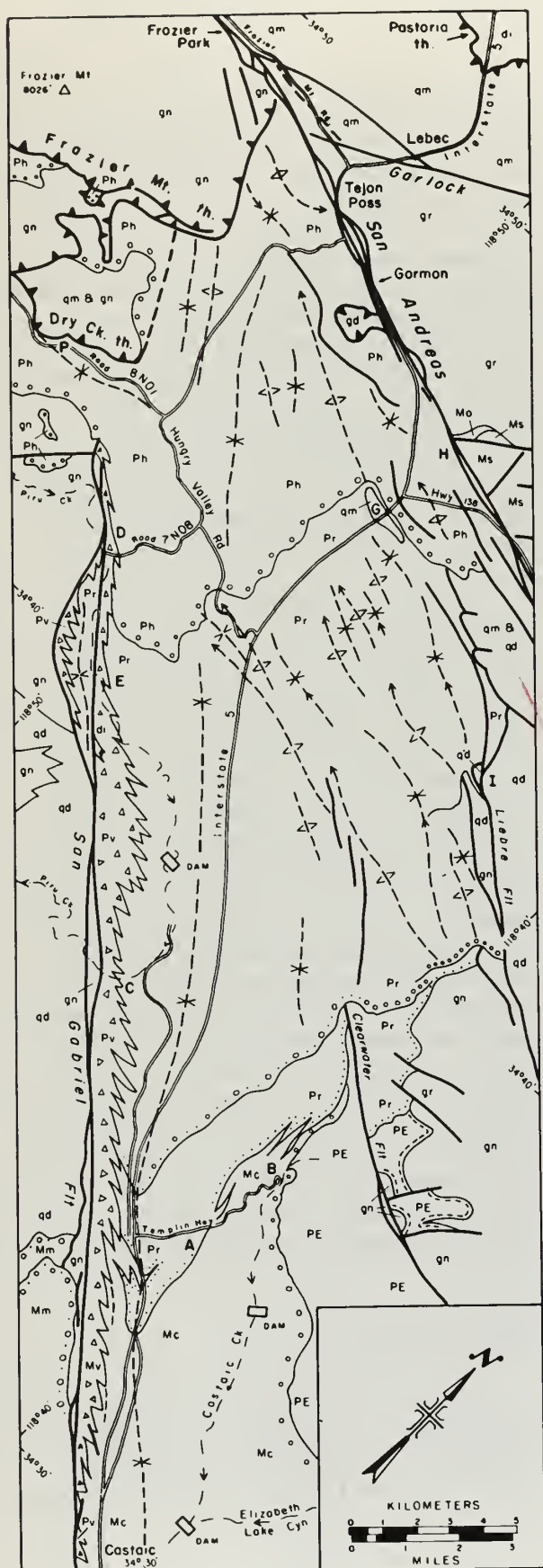


Figure 1. Sketch geologic map of Ridge Basin area, southern California. Symbols: Pre-Tertiary base rock: gn = gneiss, di = diorite, gd = granodiorite, qd = quartz diorite, qm = quartz monzonite, gr = granite; Tertiary rock: PE = Paleocene and Eocene San Francisco Formation, Ma = Miocene andesite and related volcanic rock, Ms = Upper Miocene Santa Margarita Formation, Mc = Upper Miocene Castaic Formation, Mm = Upper Miocene Modelo Formation, Mv and Pv = Upper Miocene and Pliocene Violin Breccia, Pr = Ridge Basin Group, Ph = Hungry Valley Formation. Quaternary fan and terrace deposits and alluvium not shown. Accessible localities for field trips: A: Templin Highway and Old Ridge Route, soft-sediment deformation; B: Castaic Canyon at Templin Highway, unconformity at floor of Ridge Basin; C = Piru Gorge downstream from Frenchman Flat, Violin Breccia and San Gabriel fault zone; D = Forest Service Road 7N08, exposure of San Gabriel fault zone in cliff (1 km (5/8 mi) to N from where road crosses Piru Creek; E = at S. end of Forest Service Road 7N08 along Piru Creek to Buc Creek, Violin Breccia and facies changes to finer-grained strata downstream in gorge; F = Dry Creek 1 km (5/8th mi) north of Forest Service Road 8N01, Dry Creek thrust shattered veined gneiss above overturned Plio-Pleistocene Hungry Valley beds; G = Roadcuts of Interstate just S of Highway 138 turnoff, forced basement rocks and skidded unconformity of overlying Hungry Valley beds, now vertical and disrupted; H = Gorman Post Road, fault landforms along San Andreas fault zone, including scarps of 1857 Fort Tejon Earthquake, sag ponds, exposure of shattered basement, etc.; I = Old Ridge Route.

in a long and narrow basin adjacent to the San Gabriel fault during late Miocene and Pliocene times. By Pleistocene time, the basin was filled and later deformation has squeezed and elevated the beds so that they are in view today after deep erosion. The sediments within Ridge Basin grade from conglomerate and sandstone on the northeast to predominately shale along the axis of the trough, and thence southwestward to coarse sedimentary breccia against the San Gabriel fault. Stratigraphic and structural relations (Fig. 2), show that deposition and deformation have gone on hand in hand as the intermontane basin or bolson was filled. Previous works dealing with the Ridge Basin region include Clements (1937), Eaton (1939), and Crowell (1954, 1973a).

Rocks bordering Ridge Basin include both crystalline basement and Tertiary strata. Southwest of the San Gabriel fault Precambrian and younger gneisses (including augen gneiss, blue-quartz-bearing gneiss, porphyroblastic gneiss, and migmatite) with Mesozoic granite and quartz diorite, lie above the tipped and gently folded Alamo Mountain zone of mylonites and phyllonites (Crowell, 1964, p. 11). Rocks structurally below this tectonic movement zone consist of quartz diorite with bodies of gray gneiss. These underplate rocks, the Alamo Mountain thrust system itself, and the gneissic overthrust plate are all intruded by leuco-quartz monzonite con-

taining biotite dated by K/Ar methods at about 66 m.y. (Evernden and Kistler, 1970, loc. no. 150). Exposed in steep tributaries to Piru Creek near the San Gabriel fault are some tongues of anorthositic diorite not more than a couple of meters thick that are interleaved with blue-quartz-bearing gneiss. Basement southeast of this, and also lying west of the San Gabriel fault zone, consist mainly of quartz diorite and quartz monzonite containing irregular bodies of gneiss. A narrow slice of gneiss occurs within the fault zone, and is interpreted as a segment carried in mainly by strike slip and now intermediate in position between the Tejon and Soledad region. This slice was emplaced when the Upper Miocene Modelo Formation was being deposited as shown by an intra-Modelo unconformity (Figs. 1, 3).

Terrain flanking Ridge Basin on the northeast consists of gray quartz diorite and quartz monzonite with some bodies of gray gneiss within it. Farther south, the gneiss includes elongate bodies of quartzite and marble, presumably representing metamorphosed sediments of unknown age, but probably Paleozoic. This basement terrain is overlain unconformably by Paleocene and Eocene sandstone, shale, and conglomerate assigned to the San Francisquito Formation (Dibblee, 1967, p. 44) and interpreted as part of a moderately deep-sea fan by Sage (1973; this volume). These beds form the floor of Ridge Basin south of the extension of the Clearwater

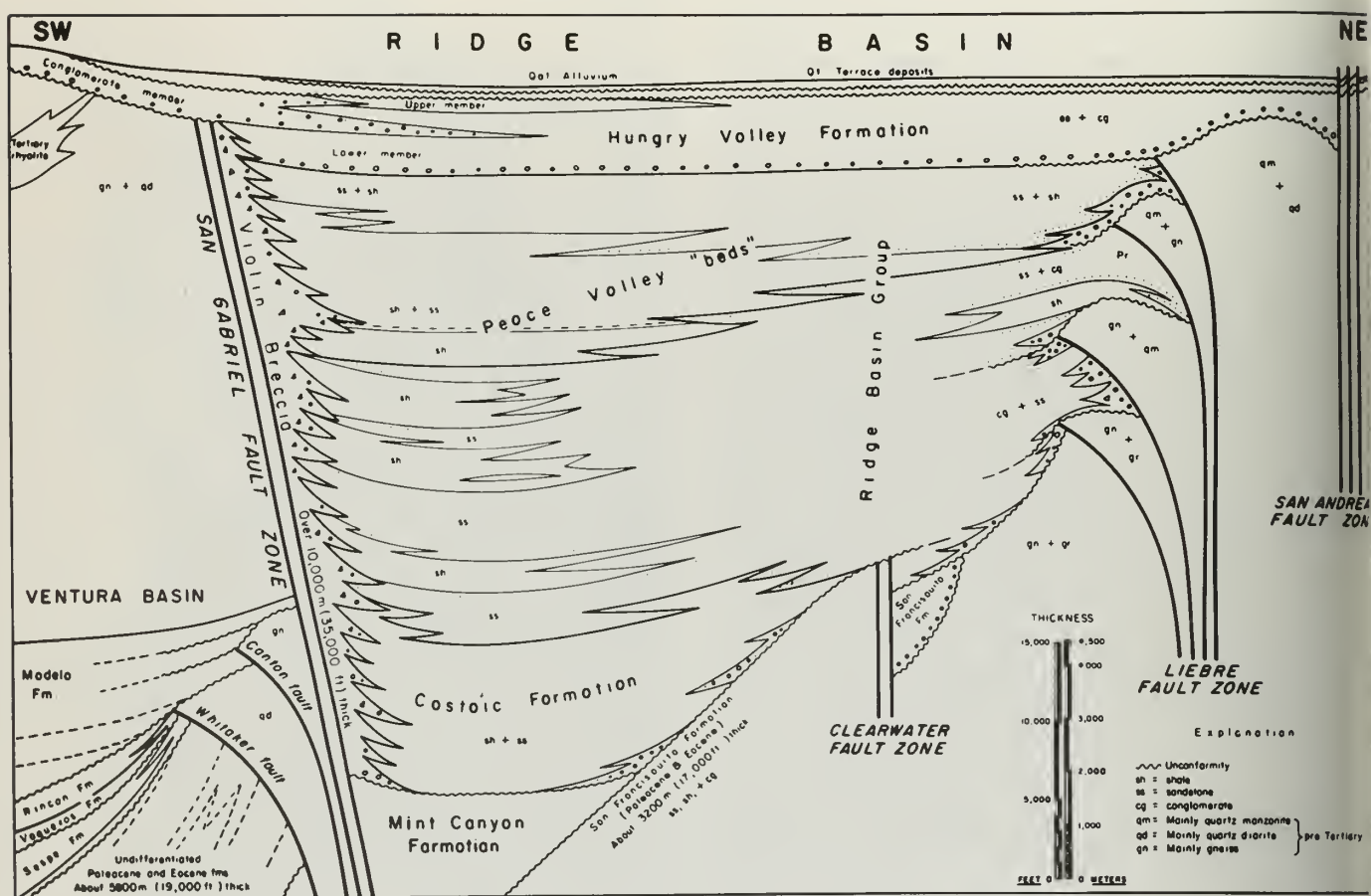


Figure 2. Stratigraphic arrangement, Ridge Basin, southern California. Maximum thicknesses shown approximately to scale; lateral extent is diagrammatic and not to scale.

fault (Fig 2). On the south-east, Ridge Basin strata grade into those of the easternmost beds of the Ventura Basin (Modelo and Castaic formations of the uppermost Miocene) and overlie those of the northwesternmost part of Soledad Basin (Mint Canyon Formation of the middle and upper Miocene). The Modelo and Castaic formations are interpreted as stratigraphic correlatives, displaced by regional trace slip of about 25 or 30 km (15 or 20 mi) on the San Gabriel fault zone in the region of the Castaic Lowlands

and through the Honor Rancho Oil Field.

The Ridge Basin Group, about 8800 m (29,000 ft) thick, overlies conformably the marine Castaic Formation, about 2200 m (7000 ft) thick. The lowermost 600 (2000 ft) of the Ridge Basin Group is marine and contains late Miocene mollusks and Foraminifera, but most of the group is nonmarine and was apparently deposited as broad alluvial fans extending basinward into an intermittent freshwater lake. Its age designation, latest Mio-

cene and Pliocene, rests upon its stratigraphic position, on Plio-Pleistocene vertebrate remains in the upper part of the section (Stock, *in* Crowell, 1950, p. 1638) and on plant and fish remains from the middle part of the section (Axelrod, 1950; David, 1945). Most of the group has been subdivided into lithologic units, as shown on Figure 2, but only the Violin Breccia, lying next to the San Gabriel fault, and the Hungry Valley Formation, topping the section, have been given formal formation names.

The Violin Breccia is an unusual formation in that it is over 10,000 m (35,000 ft) thick stratigraphically but extends along the strike for a maximum distance of only 1500 m (5,000 ft). Throughout its extent it very abruptly grades laterally into finer-grained Ridge Basin strata. The Violin Breccia everywhere consists of a rubble of gneissic blocks up to 2 m (6 ft) in diameter embedded in a sandy and muddy matrix that apparently accumulated as talus or alluvial debris at the base of the San Gabriel fault scarp. Blocks and stones of the Violin Breccia consist of gneisses and other basement types from the Alamo Mountain-Frazier Mountain region on the northwest. Clasts of anorthositic diorite are rare although a slice or landslide mass of this material occurs midway along the outcrop of the breccia (Fig. 1, di; Shepard, 1962). No material from Tertiary beds now lying immediately west of the breccia

exposures at its southeastern end, and west of the San Gabriel fault zone, has been noted. The great thickness of the breccia and the long time represented by its accumulation require continuous or frequently intermittent rejuvenation of the fault scarp. Nearly continuous movement must have occurred on the fault zone from some time in the late Miocene until the end of the Pliocene. Moreover, this displacement requires a dip-slip component, down on the northeast into the bolson of Ridge Basin, and up on the southwest to rejuvenate and elevate continuously the same limited source region.

The generalized structure and arrangement of beds within Ridge Basin is shown diagrammatically in Figure 3. Note that successively younger beds lap toward the northeast along the floor of the basin and parallel to the basin axis. A well drilled at A, for example, would penetrate a section not occurring below B. Note that the stratigraphic thickness (a quantity measurable and reproducible in the field) is immense, but that the vertical column of beds laid down at any one place never exceeded about 4500 m (15,000 ft). With respect to the bolson, the locus of sedimentation apparently migrated northwestward with time in order to accomplish this overlapping.

Most of the sediment within Ridge Basin, as judged from facies relations, clast provenances, and structures, came from the north and east. The

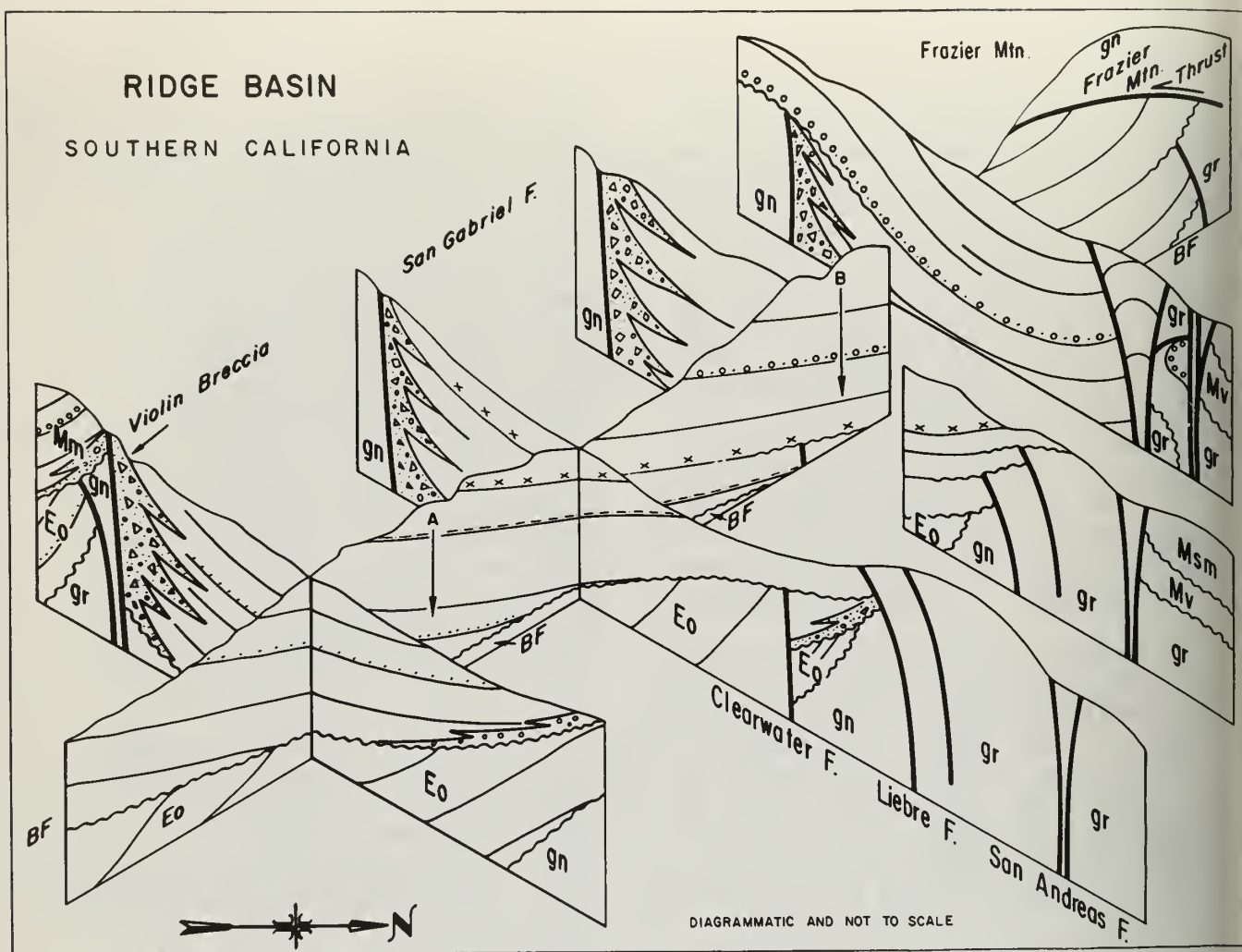


Figure 3. Isometric sketch of Ridge Basin, southern California (diagrammatic and not to scale). Strata of Ridge Basin not labelled. Stratigraphic section at A is overlapped at B. Symbols: BF = basin floor; gn = gneiss; gr = granitic rocks; Eo = Eocene and Paleocene; Mv = Miocene volcanic rocks; Msm = Upper Miocene Santa Margarita Formation; Mn = Upper Miocene Modelo Formation. Republished with permission of Soc. Econ. Paleontologists and Mineralogists (Crowell, 1974a, Fig. 4).

Violin Breccia, although constituting only a tenth or so of the infilling, nonetheless provides important clues to the way the overlapping beds within Ridge Basin were laid down. Because the source for the debris within the Violin Breccia was a limited and circumscribed area in the vicinity of Frazier Mountain, right slip on the San Gabriel fault is required. This lateral displacement carried newly formed beds away to one side, to make way for the next set on the

down-thrown block, and in so doing, achieved the overlap. The operation is likened to dumping debris from a hopper, analogous to the source area, onto a belt moving slowly southeastward, analogous to the bolson floor. By means of tectonic creep or with successive earthquakes on the fault, the bolson moved both downwards and right laterally with respect to the source area. In such a moving system, the older beds are displaced successively more than the younger, so there are innumerable

values to the fault slip. Both the magnitude and age of slip depend on the age of the beds cut at a particular locality under discussion. Growth faults such as the San Gabriel do not have unique ages nor displacements.

THE CONTINUITY OF FAULTING

Within Ridge Basin and its environs, and especially on the northeast, there is documentation of fault movement and related deformation beginning in the late Miocene and continuing to the present time. The evidence comes primarily from interpretations of the positional history, as described above, and from unconformities and the cross-cutting of one fault by another. The sketch geologic map (fig. 1), simplified here from 1:24,000-scale mapping completed but still unpublished, shows that faults along the northeastern border of Ridge Basin ceased their activity as the basin filled. The Clearwater fault, for example, displaces and deforms a few hundred meters of beds at the bottom of the Ridge Basin sequence in that region, but the trace of the fault is then truncated and overlapped by younger Ridge Basin beds. This angular unconformity is traceable from the point of overlap across the Clearwater fault, to the south and into the center of the Ridge Basin sequence where it passes into a bedding plane with no discernible unconformity. From the center of the trough, the same bedding plane extends into the Violin Breccia and to the San Gabriel fault. Similar overlaps occur north of the end of Clearwater, and involve several other northwest and west-trending faults. Strands of the Liebre fault system, for example, were successively overlapped as Ridge Basin filled. The base of the Hungry Valley Formation corresponds to the northeast with one of these

overlaps where it crosses over the end of the surface trace of the main Liebre fault. This contact, roughly corresponding to a time marker, trends across the basin and extends into the Violin Breccia, showing that the San Gabriel fault continued to move in its customary style after the Liebre fault had died.

The San Gabriel fault is overlapped at its northwestern end by beds of the Hungry Valley Formation; these can be followed westward where they lie unconformably upon the bevelled basement terrain. The San Gabriel fault therefore continued displacement on through Pliocene time after the Liebre fault ceased movement, a duration of time equivalent to that taken to deposit about 1100 m (3600 ft) of beds. After that, an additional 800 m (2600 ft) or so of conglomerate was laid down, and these beds were then folded beneath the Dry Creek thrust and other elements of the Frazier Mountain thrust system during mid-Pleistocene time. This thrust system in turn acquired a slip of at least 4 km (2 1/2 mi) directed relatively toward the southeast (Crowell, 1950, p. 164). After this event, the thrust itself was folded into antiforms and synforms with crustal traces about 540 m (1760 ft) apart and with dips on the flanks of as much as 70°. In turn, splays from the San Andreas fault north-east of Frazier Mountain cross-cut this fault, and neither the San Gabriel nor Frazier Mountain thrust system show evidence of present activity.

Across the northern tip of ridge Basin, and north of the surface trace of the Liebre fault zone, beds of the Hungry Valley Formation are severely deformed and disrupted and in general stand nearly vertically. Here as well, fractured and folded basement rocks occur along

with splays from the nearby San Andreas fault that have displaced alluvium, terrace deposits, landslide deposits, as well as underlying basement and Hungry Valley beds. Some low-angle thrust faults here, probably moving with oblique slip, have brought basement slabs out across overturned beds of the Hungry Valley Formation.

The source area for the Hungry Valley beds, which lay in the Mojave Desert as judged from stone studies and paleocurrent indicators, has been displaced an unknown distance on the active San Andreas (Crowell, 1973b). Miocene sedimentary and volcanic rocks now lie directly across the fault whereas Hungry Valley debris came from a granitic terrain primarily, with some gneiss, marble, different volcanic rocks, and other rock types.

These relations show that significant movement has taken place on the San Andreas fault here in late Pleistocene and Recent times but it is still unclear to what extent the fault was active concurrently with the San Gabriel fault, or even before. In reconstructing the past tectonic scheme, if the San Gabriel is joined on trend to the San Andreas to the northwest -- a situation that apparently existed before later movements in the region described above -- a gentle or nascent Big Bend probably occupied the Frazier Mountain region. Geologic relations seem to fit with a picture of a pliant crust block, travelling laterally around this bend, that would stretch and sag. At the same time, the block inside of the bend would be squeezed and uplifted (Crowell, 1974a, p. 299; 1974b). Perhaps as the stretching and sagging Ridge Basin block went around the bend, faults within its floor and along its northwestern margin were activated, only to die out

later as the lateral movement carried them beyond the place of maximum curvature and maximum strain on the through-going transform scheme. Such a moving pattern fits fault-overlap relations of the Clearwater and Liebre fault system. In time, however, the nascent Big Bend grew to the point where the San Gabriel fault was abandoned and the Frazier Mountain system was born. This thrust system was in turn folded and soon abandoned, and the main movement taken over by the presently active San Andreas.

The oldest beds of the Violin Breccia, of late Miocene (Mohnian) age, are found at the southeastern end of its occurrence, and are displaced about 30 km (18 mi) from their source area. Across the fault zone now from these beds are exposures of marine upper Miocene conglomerate of the Modelo Formation, also late Miocene (Mohnian) age. These beds contain facies changes and paleoslope and paleocurrent indicators showing that the formation was deposited from a source area of anorthosite, diorite gabbro, gneiss, and granitic rock that lay nearby to the northeast. At present, in that direction, no appropriate basement rocks are exposed, and all basement is thickly covered with sedimentary rocks of Tertiary age both older and of the same age. With right slip of about 35 km (22 mi) on the San Gabriel fault, however, the Modelo conglomerates can be placed adjacent to a suitable source area, now exposed in the western San Gabriel Mountains (Crowell, 1952; 1962). This interpretation of the regional geology involving right slip of the order through the Castaic-Newhall Lowlands has been questioned (e.g. Paschall and Off, 1961), primarily because of the difficulty of tracing the fault zone through Miocene beds in the subsurface. Below the lowlands, and within the Honor Ra-

Field electric-log correlations and biostratigraphic units show very little vertical separation. The lithology and provenance of the strata themselves, however, are very different across the fault (Winterer and Durham, 1962). Displacement through this region appears to have been by regional block slip primarily, so that the upper Miocene units are now juxtaposed without much separation.

In recent years data have accumulated on the nature, distribution, and age of the older and basement rocks in both the Tejon basin region and in the Soledad basin. As discussed in the introductory article for this guidebook, the total offset of the Tejon terrane from that of the Soledad terrane is of the order of 60 km (38 mi). Moreover, the Mint Canyon and Caliente formations, because they both contain the same suite of conglomerate stones (including the distinctive rapakivi-textured quartz latite porphyry), were apparently somehow formerly adjacent, in the middle and late Miocene when they were deposited (Carman, 1964; Hig and Ehlert, 1972). These units seem to be displaced the same amount as the complex of basement types and immediately overlying middle and lower Tertiary beds, and it follows that all of the right slip is also late Miocene and younger. Southwest of the San Gabriel fault, however, very coarse sedimentary breccia older than this crops out in Canton Canyon and is assigned to the Sespe Formation (Oligocene-Lower Miocene). These beds include huge boulders and blocks of anorthosite and Lowe Granodiorite, as well as less distinctive rock types, up to 5 m (16 ft) in diameter (Bohannon, this volume). The breccia apparently accumulated at the base of the San Gabriel fault and propagated to the northeast. If this succession is interpreted in this way, the fault originated in the

early Miocene, and is therefore significantly older than late Miocene time, although right slip may not have begun until then. More regional work in detail is needed.

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SECTION 4

Tejon Pass to Carrizo Plain



Photo 7. San Andreas fault in Carrizo Plain, looking west toward Soda Lake in the distance. Note offset streams.
J. S. Shelton Photograph No. 2635, 28 June 1959, 3000 ft. elevation.



Photo 8. San Andreas fault zone in Carrizo Plain at Elkhorn Scarp, looking east. Southern tip of Temblor Range in background. Note offset streams and beheaded streams in center of photo.
J. S. Shelton Photograph No. 501, 10 July 1957, 6500 ft. elevation.

SAN ANDREAS FAULT BETWEEN CARRIZO PLAINS AND TEJON PASS, SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA

John C. Crowell
Geological Sciences Department
University of California
Santa Barbara, CA 93106

ABSTRACT

The San Andreas fault at its sharp bend in the northern Transverse Ranges separates very different rock terrains. North of the fault basement rocks consist of granites mainly of Mesozoic age with Sierra Nevada affinities, containing included remnants of Mesozoic metasediments. To the south the basement is composed of basic metamorphic rocks that may be uplifted portions of ancient oceanic crust. The sedimentary section south of the fault begins with the marine Eocene Tejon Formation and is succeeded by a nearly complete sequence, including some intercalated volcanic rocks, up into the Miocene Series. Many of these northern rock units change facies from continental beds on the east to deep-water marine facies on the west where they are sharply truncated by the San Andreas fault.

Southwest of the fault zone Precambrian gneisses and migmatites, gneisses of unknown age, and Mesozoic granitic rocks of several types are exposed. The Paleocene Pattiway Formation and mid-Tertiary nonmarine beds and volcanic units in the Caliente Range and Cuyama Valley area are truncated on the northeast by the San Andreas. Mid-Miocene and younger conglomerates and sandstones in the northern Transverse Ranges were deposited in intermontane valleys with sources to the northeast. Across the San Andreas fault in that direction no suitable source areas occur today. Suitable source areas for these beds and counterparts to the south of the southern basement-rock

units have been identified across the San Andreas - San Gabriel fault system in Soledad Basin and the Orocochia - Chocolate Mountain region, indicating about 300 km (180 mi) of right slip.

Emphasis in this paper is upon details observable along the San Andreas fault zone, such as fault landforms, fault slices of many rock varieties, crushed rocks, and upon the striking contrast in rock units across the fault zone as a whole.

INTRODUCTION

In approaching the Transverse Ranges along the San Andreas fault from the northwest, the fault zone curves eastward into the Big Bend, and near Frazier Park has a due east-west strike for a distance of about 6 km (4 mi). The fault then curves gently southeastward across Tejon Pass and continues along the southwestern margin of the Mojave Desert. As the fault enters the Big Bend region south of the Tumbler Range its surface trace climbs in elevation and crosses through basement terrain in the Mount Pinos - San Emigdio Mountain - Frazier Mountain region (Figs. 1, 2). The Big Bend region is also notable for the intersection of other major faults with the San Andreas fault: the Garlock, Big Pine, San Gabriel, and Liebre, for example. Despite the conspicuous pattern of the Big Bend region on geologic maps, the evolution and significance of this complex area is still unclear and much additional investigation is needed.

Rock units contrast markedly

across the San Andreas fault zone in this region. Basement rocks as well as overlying sedimentary sections cannot be correlated directly across the fault zone. Some matching sequences have been recognized outside of the Big Bend region and provide evidence for many miles of right slip on the San Andreas fault system, including the San Gabriel fault (Hill and Dibblee, 1953; Crowell, 1962, 1968, this volume; Wiebe, 1970; Ross, 1972; Huffman, 1972; Matthews, 1973).

In the Carrizo Plains area on the northwest sedimentary facies contrast strongly across the fault (Vedder, this volume) and many fault landforms are well displayed (Wallace, 1968; this volume). To the southeast of Tejon Pass, part of the thick sedimentary section within Ridge Basin (Crowell, this volume) is juxtaposed against an eastward-thickening sequence of very different sedimentary and volcanic strata. These units lying north of the fault include the Neenach volcanic rocks and Miocene sedimentary formations (Wiese, 1950; Crowell, 1952; Dibblee, 1967; Matthews, 1973). The fault zone itself through the Big Bend region is marked by scarps, sagponds, offset streams, and other fault landforms lying within a broad, conspicuous fault trough. The trough is primarily the result of long erosion in fault-shattered rocks. This article is primarily concerned with features within and along this fault zone on a route followed by public roads.

ROCK UNITS NORTH OF THE SAN ANDREAS FAULT

Basement rocks within the San Emigdio Mountains and southwestern part of the Tehachapi Mountains consist mainly of gneiss, schist, granitic and gabbroic rocks of several types, and metasedimentary rocks. Part of this strip of base-

ment rocks is composed of quartz monzonite, quartz diorite, and diorite, and constitutes the upper plate of the north branch of the Garlock fault. This major tectonic movement zone, marked by mylonite and blastomylonite, is exposed in the Neenach Quadrangle (Wiese, 1950; Peters, 1972) and dips to the north at about 50 degrees. It overlies tectonically Pelona Schist, greenschist-facies sequence of probable Mesozoic age reconstituted from graywacke, mudstone, some chert, carbonate rocks, and volcanic rocks (Ehlig, this volume). At the eastern border of the Lebec Quadrangle, this north-dipping major fault is truncated by the south-dipping Pastoria thrust (Crowell, 1952), another major fault. The Pastoria thrust in turn is truncated on the south by the south branch of the Garlock fault, no doubt the principal strike-slip branch of the Garlock. Rocks in the upper plate of the Pastoria thrust, and constituting the long ridge surmounted by Tecuya Mountain and Santa Emigdio Mountain, consist mainly of gray granodiorite and quartz monzonite with inclusions of marble and hornfels. These Paleozoic (?) meta-sedimentary rocks are best preserved in roof pendants south of the Garlock fault; here, the limestone beds have been intruded by coarse pink granite, quartz monzonite, and granodiorite. Basement-rock type cropping out in the westernmost San Emigdio Mountains consist of gabbro, pyroxenite, hornblende quartz diorite, quartz gabbro, amphibolite, and metadiabase (Hammond, 1958; Ross, 1970, 1972). These mafic and ultramafic rocks may originally have been of suboceanic origin, whereas most of the eastern granitic rocks north of the San Andreas fault appear similar to those of the southern Sierra Nevada. Unfortunately except for local studies, this sector of basement rocks has not as yet been investigated or mapped in detail.

Sedimentary rocks lying unconformably upon this basement terrain consist of a thick section of marine and nonmarine beds extending stratigraphically upward from the Eocene Tejon Formation. On the west, beds of this Tertiary sequence are entirely marine up through the Pliocene, but, eastward, the section changes facies rapidly; Oligocene and Miocene units, for example, are placed laterally by nonmarine conglomerates (Nilsen and others, 1973). During early and mid-Tertiary times, prisms of sediments with mainly north-south facies trends were laid down facing the sea on the west; these beds are now returned as the result of the elevation of the San Emigdio - Tehachapi Mountains in Pleistocene time. The outcrop section in map view today in the foothills displays a sequence passing from continental beds on the east into deep-water marine deposits on the west (e.g., Hammond, 1958; Nilsen, 1973; Nilsen and others, 1973). These marine units reach to the San Andreas fault in the Temblor Range (Vedder, this volume), and in the northern part of the San Andreas sector described in this article (Fig. 1).

Volcanic rocks in this northern sector include Lower Miocene basalt and porphyritic dacite and Upper Miocene andesite, dacite, and rhyolite. The latter rocks, belonging to the Neenach - Pinnacles volcanic assemblages, occur as slices within the fault segment described herein, and are now found in intermediate positions with respect to their major outcrop areas in the Pinnacles National Monument of the northern Gabilan Range, and the southern margin of Antelope Valley (Luffman, 1972; Matthews, 1973). This volcanic field has apparently been sliced through and displaced about 315 km (195 mi).

ROCK UNITS SOUTH OF THE SAN ANDREAS FAULT

Basement rocks south of the San Andreas fault in the region of the Big Bend consist of various types of gneiss, schist, and granitics. Work by Silver (1971) on lead-uranium isotopes shows that blue-quartz bearing layered gneiss of Frazier Mountain are between 1750 and 1680 m.y. in age, and were intruded by porphyritic granodiorite and quartz monzonite between 1650 and 1680 m.y. ago. The latter rocks, now consisting of distinctive augen gneisses, were metamorphosed about 1425-1450 m.y. ago, and then intruded by gabbro, diorite, and minor anorthosite about 1220 m.y. ago. These definitely Precambrian rocks are best viewed on Frazier Mountain (Fig. 2, locality 23), and along Lockwood and Piru Creeks. Other multiple deformed gneisses, not yet dated isotopically, are well exposed along the roads to the tops of Mt. Abel (Fig. 1, locality 9) and to Mt. Pinos (Fig. 2). Granitic rocks of several types and ages also occur in the region (e.g., Crowell, 1964; Carman, 1964; Lofgren, 1967; Evenden and Kistler, 1970; Ross, 1972). Except for the Pelona Schist lying along the north flank of the Mt. Abel - Mt. Pinos ridge, none of these basement rocks appear similar to those north of the San Andreas fault. On the other hand, many of the distinctive Precambrian rocks are correlated with those of Soledad Basin and the Orocochia Mountains, and are interpreted as displaced by the San Andreas - San Gabriel fault system (Crowell, 1962, this volume).

Sedimentary and volcanic rocks exposed south of the San Andreas fault in the Big Bend region consist of marine Paleogene beds, and of continental mid- and late-Tertiary strata with some intercalated volcanic rocks. Paleocene and Eocene

sandstone and shale (Dibblee, 1973; Carman, 1964; Vedder, this volume; Howell, this volume) are preserved locally. Paleocurrent and provenance studies of the Paleocene strata suggest derivation of these clastic sedimentary rocks from across the fault zone (Sage, 1973, this volume). Mid-Tertiary non-marine units, with interbedded basalt flows, were deposited in irregular basins now disrupted by subsequent tectonic displacements (Bohannon, this volume). The middle and upper Miocene stratigraphic section in the Caliente Range and Cuyama Valley (Vedder, this volume) thins and changes facies toward the Mt. Abel region, where it is nonmarine (James, 1963; Carman, 1964; Crowell, 1964). The Miocene Caliente and Pliocene Quatal formations were deposited in broad intermontane valleys, and received debris from regions to the northeast across the San Andreas fault, and now offset (Barker, 1972). Conglomerate studies show, for example, that stones in the Caliente Formation are closely related in provenance to those of the Mint Canyon Formation of the Soledad Basin (Carman, 1964; Ehlig and Ehlig, 1972), and that these in turn were probably derived from source areas in the Orocopia-Chocolate Mountains region now northeast of the Salton Sea (Ehlig and others, this volume). Beds of the Quatal Formation can be traced eastward around the south flank of Frazier Mountain into units of the Hungry Valley Formation of the Ridge Basin section (Crowell, 1964, p. 12; this volume). Broad dissected Pleistocene conglomerates, sloping away from higher mountains and lying unconformably on the Quatal and Hungry Valley formations, are conspicuous throughout the region.

SAN ANDREAS FAULT ZONE

Public roads closely follow the

San Andreas fault zone from the Carrizo Plains (Wallace, this volume; Vedder, this volume) to the Tejon Pass region. Landforms resulting from recent faulting, including the 1857 Fort Tejon Earthquake (Wood, 1955), are conspicuous (Vedder and Wallace, 1970), as are fault slices of many rock types. Detailed strip maps along this route have been published in Crowell (1964). Localities displaying special features are also described here and shown on Figures 1 and 2 by circled numbers.

BIG PINE FAULT

The Big Pine fault can be followed westsouthwestward from its intersection with the San Andreas fault near Lake of the Woods into the Santa Maria Valley, and probably all the way to the Pacific Ocean (S. C. Comstock, personal commun. 1974). It has had a long and complex history involving dip slip in the early Miocene and left slip in the late Miocene and left slip in the post-late Miocene time (Hill and Dibblee, 1960; Poynor, 1960; Crowell, 1962, p. 12; Carman, 1964; Kahle, 1966; Bohannon, this volume). Some subdued scarps at places along the fault may be due to Recent displacements; interpretations of these landforms show, however, that this fault is not as active as the San Andreas.

GARLOCK FAULT

From its intersection with the San Andreas fault near Tejon Pass, the Garlock fault can be traced eastward for 260 km (160 mi) to the Death Valley region. Through the Tehachapi Mountains it follows a linear topographic depression but landforms within it are subdued as the result of differential erosion rather than of recent fault activity. Fresh scarps due to recent faulting are present in the Mojave Desert to the east, however (Hill and Dibblee, 1960).

1953; Smith, 1960; Dibblee, 1967). Offset dike swarms, matching sequences of metasedimentary rocks, and other features in the desert suggest a total left slip on the Garlock fault of about 65 km (40 mi) (Smith, 1962; Smith & Ketner, 1970; Davis and Burchfield, 1973). Because the histories and characteristics of rock units along the Garlock and Big Pine faults are very different it is unlikely that they constitute a conjugate mechanical system (Crowell, 1962; this volume).

OTHER FAULTS

The Abel Mountain - Mt. Pinos block of basement rocks has been uplifted and thrust relatively westward across beds of the Miocene Caliente Formation (Ziony, 1958; Crowell, 1964, p. 14). On the south, this thrust passes into several tear faults with a geometry suggesting that the terrain between the San Andreas and Big Pine faults has been squeezed upward and westward. The San Gabriel fault and Frazier Mountain thrust system are described briefly by Crowell (this volume).

EXCURSION GUIDE

According to their designation on Figures 1 and 2, 32 localities are described briefly below where significant geological features can be observed. For more precise locations, refer to the strip maps of Crowell (1964) or to U.S. Geological Survey quadrangles (Apache Canyon, Ballinger Canyon, Cuddy Valley, Cuyama, Eagle Rest Peak, Frazier Mountain, Lebec, Santiago Creek, and Sawmill Mountain). Distances in miles.

1. (Drive northwestward from Hwy 33 and 166 for about 2 mi on Soda Lake Road from Reyes Service Station). Note fault scarps along the San Andreas fault zone and dry

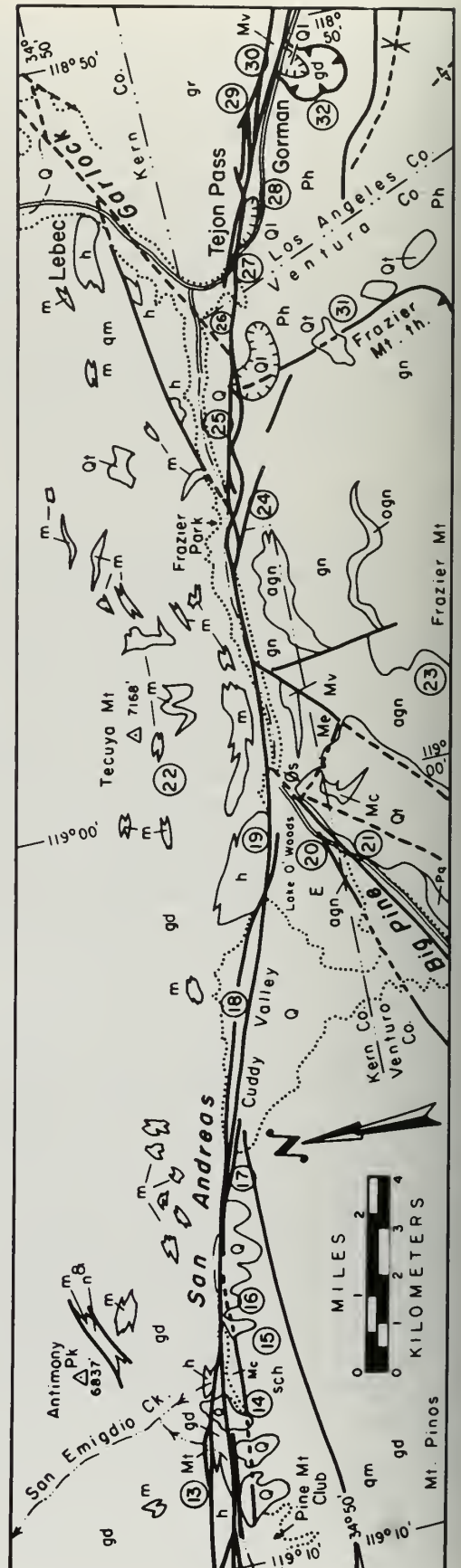
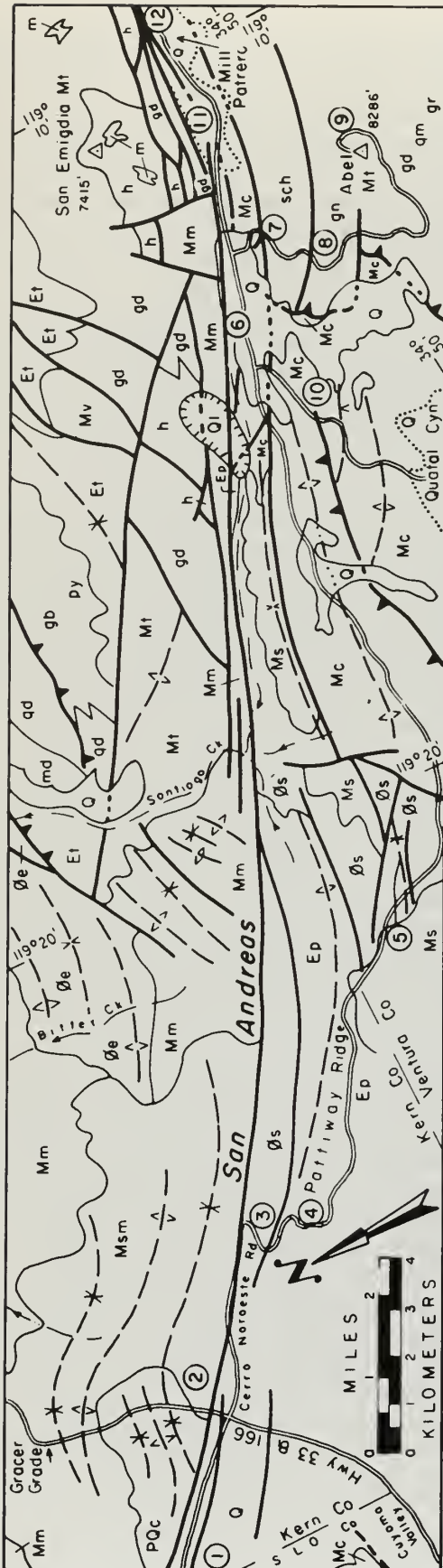
sag pond. Excellent fault landforms are found on to the northwest (Wallace, 1968, this volume). Shattered masses of plutonic and metamorphic rocks, probably slices of basement within the San Andreas fault zone occur on a ridge to the southwest of the road (Vedder, 1970, outcrop marked pKc).

2. (Crossing of San Andreas fault by Hwy 33 and 166, northeast of Reyes Service Station). The San Andreas fault is marked by two narrow fault valleys with a fault ridge (horst) between them.

3. (Cerro Noroeste Road leading to Abel Mountain by way of Pattiway Ridge). Scarps along the San Andreas fault zone face both northeast and southwest; fault traces converge and diverge in map view. Note fault depressions and desiccated sag ponds.

4. (Viewpoint on curve of climbing road, near milepost 5). Views of Cuyama Valley, Caliente Range, Carrizo Plain, and Temblor Range. Trace of San Andreas fault zone clearly visible. Outcrops of Paleocene-Eocene Pattiway Sandstone in roadcuts and on hillsides (Sage, this volume).

5. (Turnout on Cerro Noroeste Road near entrance monument to Los Padres National Forest, about 9.6 mi from Hwy 33 and 166). On the east, deeply dissected terrain along tributaries of Santiago Creek, with trace of San Andreas fault zone prominent. In the roadcut, non-marine conglomeratic sandstone (buff and reddish) of the Oligocene - Lower Miocene Simmler Formation (θ s) is overlain by marine brown siltstone of the Miocene Soda Lake Formation (Ms) containing yellowish calcareous concretions. Both units dip easterly at about 30 degrees and are overlain unconformably by gravels of the Pliocene Quatal Formation (also called Paso Robles For-



Figures 1 and 2. Adjoining strip maps from Grocer Grade on Highway 3, and 166 on the northwest to German on the southeast. Geology simplified and modified from Cowell (1964). Basement rock symbols: gb = gabbro; py = pyroxenite; gd = granodiorite; qd = quartz diorite; qm = quartz monzonite; gr = granite; gn = gneiss, an = augen gneiss; m = mainly marble; h = mainly hornfels; md = megacrystic diorite; sch = Pelona Schist. Sedimentary and volcanic rocks: E = Paleocene and Eocene Pattiway Formation; Et = Eocene Tejon Formation; E = Eocene formations undifferentiated; Oe = Oligocene San Emigdio Formation; Os = Oligocene - Lower Miocene Simmler Formation; Mt = Miocene Temblor Formation; Mm = Miocene Monterey Formation; Msm = Miocene Santa Margarita Formation; Ms = Miocene Soda Lake Formation; Mc = Miocene Caliente Formation; Mv = Miocene volcanic rocks; Pq = Plio-Pleistocene Quatal Formation; Ph = Plio-Pleistocene Hungry Valley Formation; PQc = Pliocene - Quaternary continental deposits; Q = Quaternary deposits, mostly alluvium and terrace debris; Ql = Landslides; Qt = Quaternary terraces or high-standing fans.

tion) that dip westerly at about 3 degrees. Between this locality and Stop 6 there are excellent views northwestward and downward into the imposing canyon eroded by Santiago Creek. Note the tight syncline paralleling the main San Andreas fault; the fault lies adjacent to it on the north.

6. (Forest Service roads and access roads to quarries). Catastrophic rocks and fault slices within the San Andreas fault zone. A large landslide from the high ridge to the north side of Santiago Canyon has been cut by recent movements on the San Andreas fault; the

trace of the fault can be followed across its lower third.

7. (Cerro Noroeste Road near turnoff to Camp Condor). Exposures of Miocene Caliente Formation (conglomeratic sandstone) faulted against Pelona Schist.

8. Sharp curve in road and deep roadcut). Pelona Schist faulted against gneiss and migmatite. Some zones of mylonite and blastomylonite in the gouge of this fault zone suggest either recurrent movement or that fault slices of an older fault have been tectonically carried into their present position here.

9. (Summit of Abel Mountain; campground). Exposures of rodded gneiss, migmatized at places and multiply deformed.

10. (Quatal Canyon Road, down canyon from Toad Spring Campground). Reddish schist-bearing sedimentary breccia of Miocene Caliente Formation. Facies changes and clast imbrication show derivation of these sediments from the north; from a source across the San Andreas fault and now disappeared, probably displaced by right slip (Barker, 1972). The breccia interfingers with typical Caliente sandstone and conglomerate along Quatal Canyon.

11 and 12. (Mill Potrero - Pine Mountain Club region). Prominent scarps, offset streams, and other fault landforms along the active San Andreas fault at the base of San Emigdio Mountain, and through part of the Pine Mountain Club development. Note many long fault slices on the steep hillside, including Miocene sedimentary units and plutonic and metamorphic rocks. Groundwater in this region is partly dammed by gouge zones along the fault zone paralleling the road through the valley.

13. (Tributary to San Emigdio Creek). Fault slices of marine Miocene Temblor Formation (sandstone and shale). Slices of hornfels and plutonic rocks.

14. (Continuing eastward along road toward Cuddy Valley). Slices of Miocene Caliente Formation (non-marine conglomeratic sandstone) south of the active trace of the San Andreas fault and north of a steeply south-dipping fault that has tectonically emplaced Pelona Schist above the sandstone. Fan-glomerate deposits from Mt. Pinos slope valleyward, unconformably above the schist, sandstone, and south-dipping fault. These fan-glomerate beds are in turn cut by the near-vertical San Andreas fault zone. A main tributary of San Emigdio Creek is sharply offset to the right for nearly a half-mile at Locality 14, near the Jim Whitner Tree (a giant ponderosa pine, 20 feet in circumference and 142 feet high).

15. (Turnout on road with view down San Emigdio Canyon to the San Joaquin Valley). Prominent thick beds of Eocene and Oligocene sandstone lie unconformably upon basement rocks and form sharp peaks north of Antimony Peak, including Eagle Rest Peak in the Devil's Kitchen area. Old mines on Antimony Peak were worked first by Indians and were examined by W. P. Blake, an early California geologist, in 1857 (Jermain and Ricker, 1949; Troxel and Morton, 1962, p. 56).

16 to 17. (Road follows along hillside above San Emigdio Creek in approaching divide into Cuddy Valley). Road constructed along trace of fault with several sag ponds (mostly dry and alluviated), shutter ridges, and offset streams. Much of the prominent fault topography here is probably the result

of the 1857 Fort Tejon Earthquake. Road to Mt. Pinos takes off from near divide between San Emigdio Canyon and Cuddy Valley; this is an instructive side trip. Along the road are good exposures, first of Pelona Schist, and then (to the south) of gneiss and granitic rocks.

18. (Cuddy Valley). Fault scarps, fault-depressed segments, desiccated sag ponds, and other features. Forest Service roads provide access to Tecuya Ridge on the north where granodiorite and quartz monzonite are exposed along with inclusions of marble and hornfels.

19. (Narrows between Cuddy Valley and Cuddy Canyon). Prominent fault topography and incised drainage arrangement along the San Andreas fault.

20. (Roadcuts west of Lake of Woods settlement). Brecciated augen gneiss, that probably occurs as slices within the Big Pine fault zone near its intersection with the San Andreas fault. This rock is similar to that on Frazier Mountain to the south, and to augen gneiss in Soledad Basin and the Orocoopia Mountains (Crowell, 1962; this volume).

21. (Road to Lockwood Valley and westward). Faint fault scarps along Big Pine fault near Cuddy Ranch, opposite road to Chuchupate Campground and summit of Frazier Mountain.

22. (Forest Service road to Tecuya Ridge). Paleozoic (?) metasedimentary rocks are preserved as inclusions of marble and hornfels in granodiorite and quartz monzonite.

23. (Road to summit of Frazier Mountain). Gneiss, augen gneiss, and migmatite. Excellent regional

w from top.

4. (Frazier Mountain Park., especially east and southeast of). Fault topography, fault ges, scarps, elongate fault de- ssions and incipient pull-aparts.

5. (On eastward for several es from Frazier Mountain Park). ellent fault landforms along the Andreas, including shutter ges and offset streams.

6. (Gullies beneath terrace de- its). Exposures of basement ks in this region show that the lock fault meets the San Andreas lt at a high angle.

7. Summit of Tejon Pass, at ervice 5 crossing). Slices of ble, hornfels, sheared and minuted granodiorite, granite, rtz monzonite, Miocene andesite, gray conglomeratic sandstone of Plio-Pleistocene Hungry Valley mation (Ridge Basin section), ng with other rock types, occur een here and Stop 30. The prin- al break of the San Andreas fault marked at the pass by several t of black gouge separating nge Quaternary terrace deposits the north from comminuted and eared granodiorite on the south.

8. (Curve in Interstate 10 be- een summit of Tejon Pass and Gor- town). Large landslide from es to north has slid across the Andreas fault, and then has been placed by later movements on the alt.

9 and 30. (Hillside north of oman). Slices of a variety of ok units within a locally broad es of the San Andreas fault zone. se include rocks similar to those t Stop 27 (refer to map, Crowell, 92).

1. Canyons beneath high fans on

flank of Frazier Mountain). The Frazier Mountain thrust has emplaced Precambrian gneiss on top of steep- ly dipping Plio-Pleistocene con- glomeratic sandstone beds of the Hungry Valley Formation (Crowell, this volume). The thrust is over- lapped by conspicuous fans high on the mountain slope. These terrace surfaces apparently correlate geo- morphically with the subdued sur- face surmounting the ridge north of Gorman and with remnants between Tecuya Mountain and Lebec.

32. (Hill southeast of Gorman). A large landslide or small thrust plate of broken-up rock, mainly consisting of granodiorite with masses of marble and hornfels in- cluded within it surmounts this hill. The mass presumably slid from a high ridge squeezed up with- in the San Andreas fault zone. Since emplacement, however, the San Andreas has moved again. Young landslides have carried some of this older landslide or thrust debris downslope to the present active San Andreas fault zone along Interstate 5.

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JUXTAPOSED TERTIARY STRATA ALONG THE SAN ANDREAS FAULT IN THE TEMBLOR AND CALIENTE RANGES, CALIFORNIA

By J. G. Vedder
U. S. Geological Survey
Menlo Park, California

ABSTRACT

Remnants of Tertiary marine basins that formerly transgressed the central segment of the San Andreas fault are preserved in the southern Coast Ranges. On opposite sides of the fault, rocks of the same age contain unlike stratal sequences that record dissimilar paleoenvironments. Reconstructions based upon provenance and depositional patterns suggest post-middle Miocene strike-slip separation of as much as 185 miles (300 km) and post-early Pliocene separation of nearly 50 miles (80 km).

INTRODUCTION

In the southeastern Temblor and Caliente Ranges, late Cenozoic marine and nonmarine sedimentary sequences that are separated by the San Andreas fault represent sharply contrasting basin histories. Comparison of thicknesses, depositional environments, shoreline positions, source terranes and faunal facies across the fault reveal striking mismatches, particularly in rocks of Miocene age. Strata that are now contiguous can be restored to their original position only by large scale strike-slip separation. Although the displaced counterparts of the rock units described lie beyond the limits of the area, they are briefly reviewed because regional palinspastic reconstruction and timing of fault movement are contingent upon inferred amounts of offset.

PALEOGENE

The Pattiway Formation, a marine mudstone, sandstone, and conglomerate unit of Paleocene age (Dibblee, 1973a; Vedder, in press), is exposed in the southeasternmost part of the Caliente Range (Fig. 1). A 3,500-foot (1,070 m) outcrop section (Fig. 2,3), which displays much lenticular and truncated bedding and contains bathyal foraminiferal assemblages, may represent

channel deposits of a deep-sea fan. An additional 2,820 feet (860 m) of sandstone and shale was penetrated in an explorator well, but it is not known whether these strata are underlain by Upper Cretaceous sedimentary rocks or basement, or both. Directly across the San Andreas fault, however, wells have not penetrated Paleocene beds, and they may not be present there. Along the north side of the San Emigdio Mountains, about 5 to 20 miles (8 to 32 km) southeast of the Temblor Range, basement rocks are overlapped by Eocene strata both at the surface and in the subsurface. In the northern Temblor Range, Paleocene beds that are mostly younger than the Pattiway Formation are exposed, but their extent southward in the subsurface is in dispute (Dibblee, 1973a).

In the southeastern Caliente Range, the type section of the nonmarine Simmler Formation is composed primarily of lenticular variegated beds of mudstone and sandstone with subordinate conglomerate. The formation is unconformable on the Pattiway Formation, and most of the sequence in the type area suggests a flood plain environment with local lacustrine conditions. Elsewhere in the region, particularly in the southeastern La Panza Range and Cuyama Badlands, conglomeratic facies of the Simmler Formation imply deposition in coalescing alluvial fans along an elongate, northwest-oriented basin (Bartow, 1974). The age of the formation is uncertain; it may incorporate strata as old as Eocene and as young as early Miocene, but an Oligocene (?) age generally is accepted. Northeast of the San Andreas fault, opposite the type section of the Simmler Formation, it is inferred that marine strata deeply buried beneath the Temblor Range may be partly equivalent in age to the lower beds in the Simmler; presumably they include the upper beds of the Point of Rocks Sandstone and the Kreyenhagen Shale (H.C. Wagner, J.A. Bartow, and R.L. Pierce, unpub. data). In the northwestern Temblor Range, the Point of Rocks Sandstone probably represents bathyal fan deposition in a late Eocene sequence

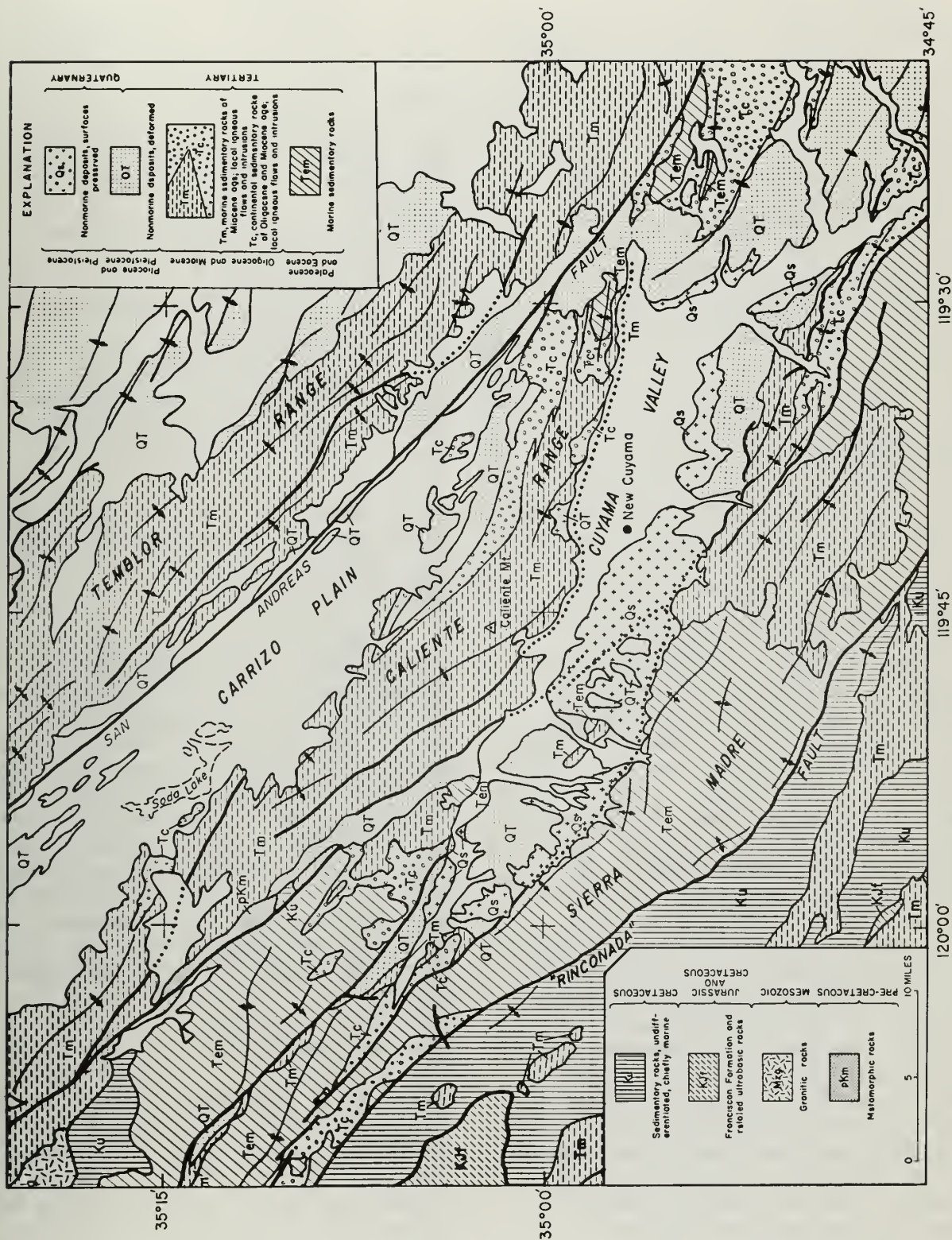


Figure 1. Generalized geologic map illustrating distribution of composite rock units and major structures in the eastern part of the southernmost Coast Ranges. Modified from Vedder (1973).

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CALIENTE RANGE

Provincial age	Unit, stage or age, dominant rock types, local maximum thickness	
Pleistocene?	Morales Formation (Blancan) conglomerate, mudstone, sandstone nonmarine 3,800 ft (1,160 m)	
Pliocene	Quatal Formation (Hemphillian) claystone, sandstone nonmarine 1,000 ft (300 m)	
Miocene	Santa Margarita Formation (Mohnian; "Margaritan") sandstone marine 2,700 ft (820 m)	Caliente Formation (Clarendonian) Basalt (Barstovian)
	Whiterock Bluff Shale Member (Luisian, Relizian) siliceous shale marine 500 ft (150 m)	Branch Canyon Sandstone ("Temblorian") marine 1,500 ft (460 m)
	Salto Shale Member (Temblorian, "Vaquerosian") mudstone, siltstone, marine 3,800 ft (1,160 m)	Basalt (Hemingfordian)
	Painted Rock Sandstone Member (Saucasian; "Vaquerosian") sandstone, mudstone, conglomerate marine 5,500 ft (1,680 m)	mudstone, sandstone, conglomerate nonmarine (Arikareean)
	Soda Lake Shale Member (Saucasian, Zemorrian; "Vaquerosian") mudstone, siltstone, sandstone marine 2,400 ft (730 m)	4,250 ft (1,300 m)
	Quail Canyon Sandstone Member ("Vaquerosian") sandstone marine 500 ft (150 m)	
Oligocene	Simmler Formation sandstone, mudstone, conglomerate nonmarine 3,800 ft (1,160 m)	
Paleocene	Pattway Formation ("Ynezian; "Martinez") sandstone, mudstone, conglomerate marine 6,300 ft (1,920 m)	

SOUTHEAST TEMBLOR RANGE

Provincial age	Unit, stage or age, dominant rock types, local maximum thickness	
Pleistocene	Paso Robles Formation (SW slope), Tulare Formation (NE slope) shale-pebble gravel, nonmarine 1,700(?) ft (520 m)	
Pliocene	"Panorama Hills Formation" ("Jacalitos") gravel, nonmarine, unnamed sandstone, marine 2,000 ft (610 m)	San Joaquin Formation Etchegoin Formation subsurface only 3,200 ft (975 m)
Miocene	Bitterwater Creek Shale (Mohnian) claystone, shale marine 3,000 ft (915 m)	Reef Ridge Shale (Delmontian?, or Mohnian) subsurface only 500 ft (150 m)
	Santa Margarita Formation ("Margaritan") conglomerate, sandstone marine 3,000 ft (915 m)	McLure Shale Member (Mohnian, Luisian) diatomaceous shale, conglomerate, sandstone marine 3,000 ft (915 m)
	Monterey Shale	Gould and Devilwater Shale Members (Luisian, Relizian) siliceous shale, sandstone, marine 2,500 ft (760 m)
	Temblor Formation (8 named members) (Relizian, Saucasian, Zemorrian; "Temblorian", "Vaquerosian", unnamed) sandstone, claystone marine 7,800 ft (2,380 m)	
Oligocene	Wagonwheel Formation (Refugian in type area) subsurface (?)	
Eocene	Point of Rocks Sandstone (Narizian in type area) subsurface (?)	
	Kreyenhagen Shale (Narizian in type area) subsurface (?)	

Figure 2. Chart of Cenozoic stratigraphic units in the Caliente and Temblor Ranges. Stage names are applicable only to marine units that contain representative faunas.

that may have been displaced about 200 miles (320 km) from similar rocks in the Santa Cruz basin (Clarke and Nilsen, 1973). Foraminiferal assemblages from the Kreyenhagen in the northern part of the Temblor Range suggest a late Eocene age (Narizian) and deposition at depths that include most of the bathyal zone (R.L. Pierce, written commun., 1970). Oligocene (Refugian and lower Zemorrian) strata have not been penetrated by wells in the southeastern Temblor Range, but they may be present at greater depth, inasmuch as rocks of this age occur in adjoining areas both to the northwest and southeast. Equivalent rocks to the northwest represent bathyal to abyssal marine environments, and Lamb and Hickernell (1972) report bathyal marine Oligocene strata in a well about 5 miles (8 km) southeast of the Temblor Range. Offset counterparts of the nonmarine Simmler Formation have not been identified, but possibly correlative strata occur in the Soledad basin east of the San Gabriel fault and at Cajon Pass east of the San Andreas fault (Bartow, 1974).

NEOGENE

Rocks of Miocene age are widely distributed in both the surface and subsurface sections on both sides of the San Andreas fault in the southern Coast Ranges, but the depositional environments in the southeastern Temblor Range are strikingly different from those of strata of the same age on the opposite side of the fault in the southeastern Caliente Range. For convenience of description, these successions are divided chronologically into early, middle, and late, following the usage of Addicott (1972), Savage and Barnes (1972), and Vedder (1973).

Early Miocene strata

Along the southwest edge of the San Joaquin Valley in and adjacent to the Temblor Range near Taft, interbedded sandstone and shale units of early Miocene age are as thick as 6,000 feet (1,830 m). Microfaunal assemblages indicative of middle and lower bathyal depths suggest that these beds are

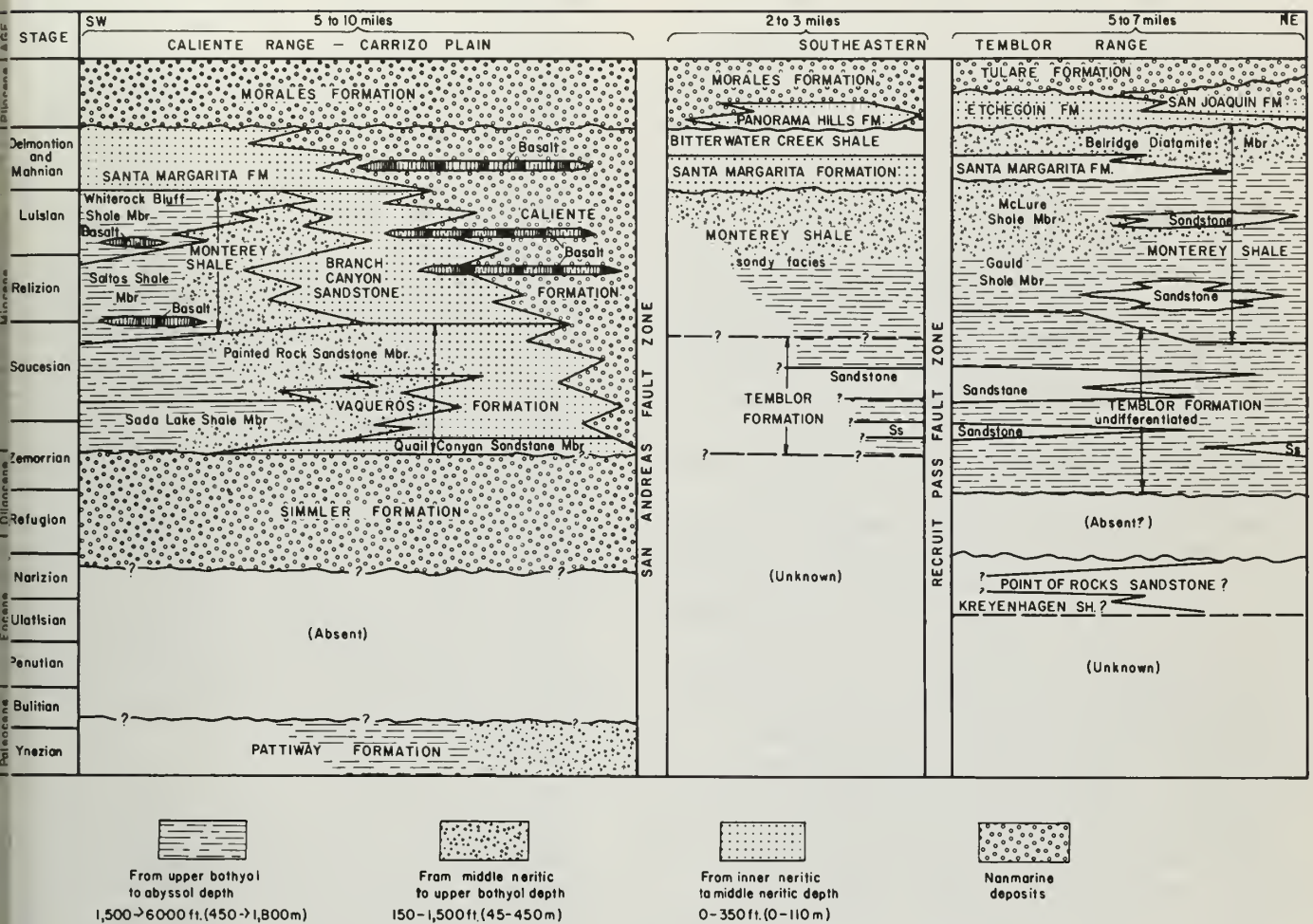


Figure 3. Schematic stratigraphic diagram showing contrast in rock units and paleobathymetry across the San Andreas fault zone.

probable correlatives of the Santos Shale and Agua Sandstone Members of the type Temblor Formation farther north (R.L. Pierce, written commun., 1970). West of the fault, in the Caliente Range, as much as 10,000 feet (3,050 m) of interbedded sandstone and siltstone of the same age is exposed in the vicinity of Caliente Mountain, where these rocks are assigned to the Vaqueros Formation. The basin axis in which these beds accumulated is 5 to 10 miles (8 to 16 km) west of the fault; from there the sandstone-siltstone section thins and coarsens toward the fault and intertongues eastward into nonmarine beds (Fig. 3). From bottom to top, the subformational units involved are the bathyal Soda Lake Shale Member of the Vaqueros Formation in its type area, the shallow-marine lower part of the Painted

Rock Sandstone Member in the southeastern part of the range, and the lowermost part of the nonmarine Caliente Formation.

Offset counterparts of these early Miocene strata are not known with certainty. On the west side of the fault, more than 200 miles (320 km) to the northwest, as much as 6,000 feet (1,830 m) of marine strata, predominantly of deep-water aspect, occur in the Santa Cruz basin and formerly may have been contiguous to the southern Temblor Range section (Addicott, 1968). Early Miocene marine and nonmarine conglomeratic sandstone beds near Cajon Pass may be equivalent to the nearshore parts of the Caliente Range sequence (Bartow, 1974). Ehlig (1973) suggests that correlative nonmarine strata

in the Soledad basin have been displaced 35 to 40 miles (55 to 65 km) from the Cuyama Badlands by post-early Miocene right-slip movement along the San Gabriel fault system, an additional 135 miles (215 km) on the San Andreas fault, and 15 miles (24 km) on the San Jacinto fault.

Middle Miocene strata

The microfaunal content of the shaly beds in the upper part of the Temblor Formation and lower part of the Monterey Shale in the southeastern Temblor Range indicates that the bulk of the middle Miocene section there was deposited in lower bathyal depths (Fig. 3). Directly across the fault beneath the Carrizo Plain and in the Caliente Range, correlative nonmarine beds in the middle part of the Caliente Formation grade successively westward into the Branch Canyon Sandstone and Saltos Shale Member of the Monterey Shale, deposited in neritic and bathyal environments (Fig. 3). This oscillatory shoreline trended north to northwest (Clifton, 1968), and the maximum amount of marine sedimentation probably occurred in a subsiding trough 7 to 10 miles (11 to 16 km) west of the fault. In the same area, one of the several basalt flows, which seem to be restricted to the west side of the fault, shows evidence of having flowed to the west-southwest across the shoreline (Clifton, 1967).

A discontinuous depositional trough that seems to correspond to the truncated deep-water section of middle Miocene age in the Temblor Range occurs west of the fault from the Gabilan Range north to Point Reyes, but the stratigraphic sequence there is thinner and the correlation is not definitive. Nevertheless, the widths of these truncated belts are comparable. The southern margins are now separated by a minimum distance of about 130 miles (210 km), possibly as much as 180 miles (290 km) (Addicott, 1968, Fig. 4). Dislocated equivalents of the middle Miocene nonmarine succession within the middle part of the Caliente Formation directly west of the fault have not been conclusively identified east of the fault,

but possible source terranes for equivalent strata in the Cuyama Badlands have been noted east of the Salton Sea by Ehlig (1973) that would require a cumulative slip of approximately 185 miles (300 km) across the San Andreas fault system.

Late Miocene strata

On the eastern flank of the southeastern Temblor Range, as much as 6,500 feet (1,980 m) of marine claystone and shale in the Monterey Shale form the late Miocene succession. Closer to the fault along the western edge of the range, a middle Miocene shale and sandstone section is unconformably overlain by late Miocene breccia and sandstone beds that suggest high energy, shallow-water environment. These coarse clastics, which are assigned to the Santa Margarita Formation, coarse and thicken progressively westward but wedge out eastward into diatomite and shale units within the upper part of the Monterey Shale (Fig. 3). These lenses of pebble to boulder size granite, rhyolite, and schist detritus are mappable for nearly 25 miles (40 km) along the western edge of the southeastern Temblor Range and presumably were derived from a precipitous coastal zone directly to the west. The boulder beds of the Santa Margarita Formation are succeeded conformably by a late Miocene lower bathyal to abyssal diatomaceous claystone unit, the Bitterwater Creek Shale (Vedder, 1970; Dibblee, 1973). On the opposite side of the fault in the southeastern Caliente Range, arkosic floodplain deposits in the late Barstovian and early Clarendonian part of the Caliente Formation probably grade westward into littoral marine sediments of the Santa Margarita Formation west and northwest of Caliente Mountain (Fig. 3), but the relations are obscured by overlapping Quaternary beds along the Carrizo Plain. The late Miocene nonmarine beds progressively coarsen and thicken toward the fault, and paleocurrent features indicate transport from east to west (Clifton, 1968).

The most likely sources for the breccia

the Temblor Range are the crystalline basement and volcanic rocks in the Gabilan Range about 150 miles (240 km) to the northwest (Fletcher, 1967; Huffman, 1972). Possible counterparts of the late Miocene section in the Temblor Range occur on the west side of the fault in the subsurface section near the southern part of the Gabilan Range, where the maximum thickness of the shale unit is comparable to the sediments represent a shallower facies than those in the southeastern Temblor Range (Addicott, 1968). These relations suggest a separation of about 100 miles (160 km). East of the fault, neither equivalent strata nor a source of terrane have been identified that seem to be closely related to the late Miocene nonmarine section in the Caliente Range. Possible lithogenetically equivalent strata are present in the Ridge basin and Soledad area between the San Andreas and the Gabriel faults. A unique source for the granitic detritus in the upper part of the Caliente Formation remains unidentified.

Pliocene strata

Bordering the east side of the fault, along the west side of the Temblor Range and in the Panorama Hills, marine mudstone and sandstone beds of probable early Pliocene age extend as discontinuous outcrops for approximately 7 miles (11 km) parallel to the fault. These strata are nonconformable on the Bitterwater Creek shale and wedge out northward into nonmarine gravels that are assigned to the Soledad Formation by Dibblee (1973a,b). This marine unit, which formerly was included in Dibblee's (1962) Panorama Hills Formation (Fig. 3), probably is less than 1,000 feet (330 m) thick. The clastic content and fossil mollusks in the marine beds suggest that they were derived in part from Miocene sedimentary rocks directly to the east and were deposited at neritic depths. On the opposite side of the fault, there is no known marine Pliocene section throughout the Carrizo Plain-Caliente Range region. Partly correlative nonmarine strata in the uppermost part of the Caliente Formation, the Quatal Formation, and the Soledad Formation along the northeast edge

of the Caliente Range represent flood plain and lacustrine conditions in late Clarendonian, Hemphillian, and early Blancan time (Repenning and Vedder, 1961). Of these nonmarine units, only the locally derived Morales Formation is mapped east of the San Andreas fault (Dibblee, 1973b). The nearest marine strata on the west side of the fault that may be the offset equivalents of the Pliocene beds in the Panorama Hills are about 1,500 feet (460 m) thick in exploratory wells near Shandon about 50 miles (80 km) to the northwest (H.C. Wagner, J.A. Bartow, and R.L. Pierce, unpub. data).

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THE SAN ANDREAS FAULT IN THE CARRIZO PLAIN-TEMBLOR RANGE REGION, CALIFORNIA

Robert E. Wallace
U.S. Geological Survey
Menlo Park, California 94025

ABSTRACT

Geomorphic features characteristic of the San Andreas fault zone are exceptionally well displayed in the Carrizo Plain-Temblor Range region, California. Offset stream channels, elongate grabens, sag ponds, and linear ridges are among the fault-related features found in the area. As a result of movement on the San Andreas fault during the earthquake of 1907, many stream channels were offset, some by as much as 10-11 m. One estimate of the recurrence interval between earthquakes as large as that of 1857 is about 100 years.

INTRODUCTION

Many geomorphic features associated with the San Andreas fault are classically displayed along a segment of the fault from about 100 to 200 km (60-120 miles) northwest of Los Angeles. There, between the Temblor and Caliente Ranges, the fault passes through an arid region in which most landforms are unobscured by vegetation.

Bordering the fault on the southeast is an area of low relief known as the Carrizo Plain. Soda Lake, an ephemeral, saline lake, lies in a low, undrained part of the plain. To the northeast are a series of hills, including the Elkhorn and Panorama Hills, that might be considered the western flank or foothills of the Temblor Range.

The boundary between the hills and the plains broadly marks the trace of the San Andreas fault zone, but the most striking geomorphic expressions of individual fault strands generally are linear troughs, valleys, gulches, and scarplets, just within the southwest flanks of the hills, or crossing parts of the Carrizo Plain near or between the

hills. Many of the valleys and gulches are erosional features, formed by the action of intermittent streams that flow from the Temblor Range to the fault where they are deflected and cut channels in the more easily eroded brecciated and disturbed rocks along the fault. Some patterns of channels are more a result of right-lateral slip along the fault than of differential erosion alone. Among the characteristics and patterns formed by these processes are offset or beheaded channels, "Z"-shaped channels, deflected drainage and trellis drainage, warped or curved drainage, and en echelon channels (see Fig. 2).

Many geomorphic features result chiefly from differential uplift or depression, block tilting or warping, or lateral differential movement. Among these features of primarily tectonic origin are elongate grabens or troughs, sag ponds, linear scarplets and ridges, tilted and rotated blocks, shutter ridges, medial ridges, en echelon lineaments, and fold ridges.

ROCKS ALONG THE FAULT

The San Andreas fault divides the region into very dissimilar blocks of basement rocks and overlying sedimentary sequences (Dibblee, 1973a; Addicott, 1968). Large-scale (tens or hundreds of kilometres) strike slip in a right-lateral sense has juxtaposed these dissimilar blocks. Some of the evidence and arguments for this large slip are reviewed by J. G. Vedder in a companion paper in this volume.

The dominant rock units exposed at the surface, within a kilometre or so of the fault trace, are relatively young geologically, including Pliocene, Pleistocene, and Holocene sediments (see Vedder, 1970; Dibblee, 1973a, 1973b).

Most of these deposits are nonmarine gravel, sand, and silt derived locally from the Temblor Range. They are poorly to moderately indurated. At a few places rocks as old as Miocene are exposed near the fault.

The Morales Formation, of Pliocene age, and Paso Robles Formation, of Pliocene(?) and Pleistocene age, are extensively exposed in the Panorama Hills. In the Elkhorn Hills the Paso Robles Formation forms more than 90 percent of the outcrops. Alluvium and terrace deposits of several ages can be recognized, as well as numerous landslide deposits.

OFFSET AND DEFLECTED STREAMS

One of the most convincing lines of evidence for right-lateral strike slip on the San Andreas fault is that based on offset stream channels. These are nowhere better displayed than in the Carrizo Plain area. Arnold and Johnson (1910), Willis (1925), and Wood and Buwalda (1931) described some of these features. Wallace (1968) found more than 130 channels between Cholame and

Camp Dix that appeared to display true offset by right-lateral slip, a few by more than 1,000 m.

Many channels are offset by 7 to 14 m, a particularly common offset is between 10 and 11 m (see Wallace, 1968). Some of the small channels offset by 10-11 m appear to have been displaced by a single episode of movement and thus may represent displacement related to the 1857 earthquake. Figure 1, for example, shows two small channels that slope toward the viewer. The trace of the San Andreas fault bisects the frame from left to right. The channel at the left is beheaded at the fault trace at the uphill edge of the clump of vegetation in the channel. Presumably the uphill segment of the channel at the right was originally the headwaters of the channel at the left. The microgeomorphology between the two channels suggests no period of intermediate offset during which intermediate channels or bends of channels were carved. Rather, the terrain suggests one sudden offset of between 10 and 11 m. This set of channels is one of several good examples of offset channels in sec. 11, T. 32 S.

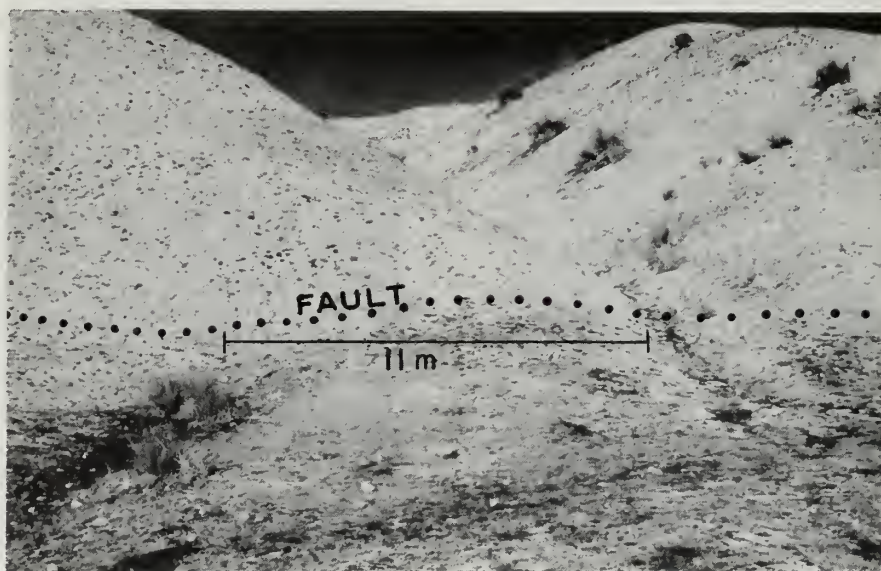


Figure 1. Channel at left (note dark vegetation) may have been displaced in 1857 about 11 m from the channel at right.

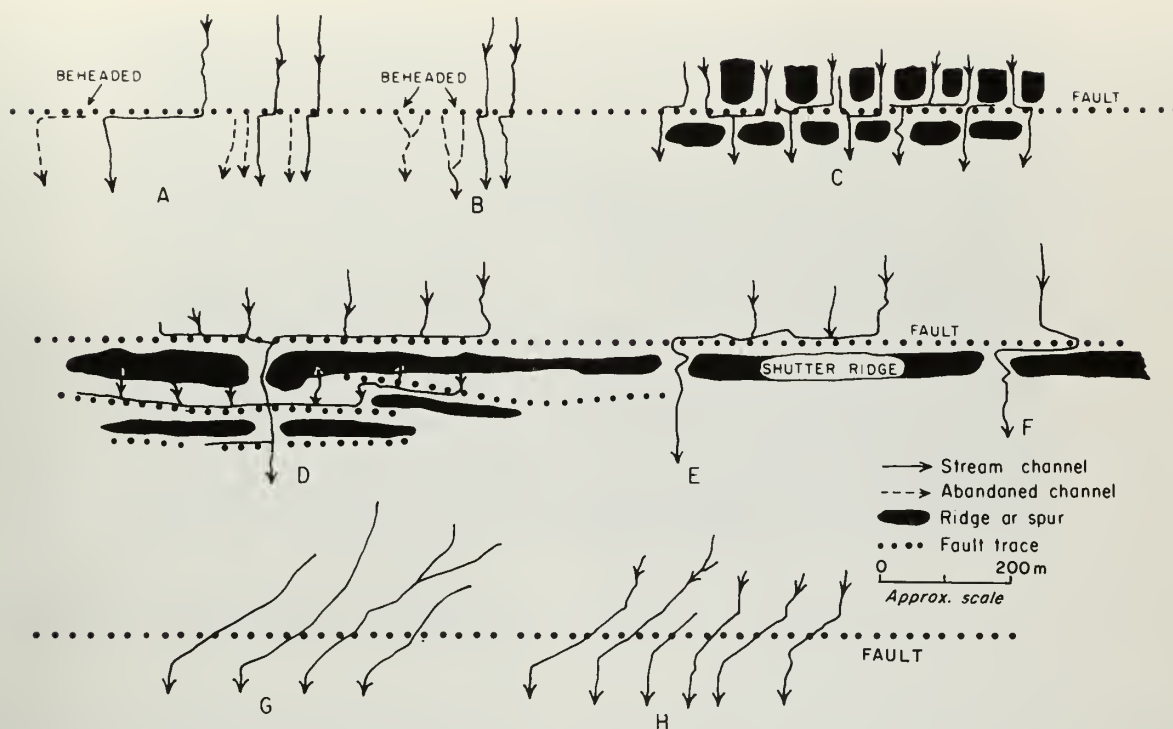


Figure 2. Diagrammatic representation of patterns of fault-related stream channels found in the Carrizo Plain area.

OFFSET CHANNELS

- A. Misalignment of single channels directly related to amount of fault displacement and age of channel. No ridge on downslope side fault. Beheading common.
- B. Paired stream channels misaligned.

COMBINATION OF OFFSET AND DEFLECTION

- C. Compound offsets of ridge spurs, and offset and deflection of channels. Both right and left deflection.
- D. Trellis drainage produced by multiple fault strands, sliver ridges, and shutter ridges.
- E. Offset plus deflection by shutter ridge may produce exaggerated or reversed apparent offset.
- F. Capture by adjacent channel followed by right-lateral slip may produce "Z" pattern.

FALSE OFFSETS

- G. Differential uplift may deflect streams to produce false offset.
- H. En echelon fractures over fault zone followed by subsequent streams produce false offset.

R. 21 E., in the Panorama Hills quadrangle. Each offset or deflected channel system presents a different microgeomorphologic problem, no two of which are identical. Wallace (1968, p. 10) noted that stream channels of small or intermediate size (100-500 m long) best record displacements of a few metres, whereas longer stream channels best record larger displacements.

The factor that probably complicates the drainage patterns most drastically and makes interpretation difficult is vertical tectonic movement. Uplift of only a few centimetres of the block under the downslope segment of a stream may be enough to deflect a small stream, and if a linear block along the fault is raised by as much as several metres across the general drainage pattern, large deflections, both right or left lateral, can result. Figure 2 diagrammatically illustrates some characteristic situations; most are represented in the Carrizo Plain area.

Some left-lateral channel offsets are recorded that are as yet unexplained by deflection, and it should be kept in mind that local left-lateral slip is possible within an overall right-lateral strain field. For example, a thrust or differentially folded block might be bounded by left-lateral slip on one side and right-lateral slip on the other.

VERTICAL DISPLACEMENTS

Inasmuch as the San Andreas fault is characterized by tens, and possibly even hundreds, of kilometres of strike slip, it should not seem surprising that local blocks a few kilometres or less on a side are jostled differentially along the fault and move either up or down by as much as a kilometre or more during the active life of the fault. The ratio of vertical to horizontal movement may be about 1 to 10 or 1 to 20. On a small scale, for example, scarplets up to a metre or so high seem fresh enough to be related to the 1857 event in which

10 m of right-lateral slip probably occurred. As one walks along the most recently active trace, one can find alternately scarps facing southwest and northeast. Apparently block movement or buckling differentially raised or depressed adjacent areas.

Sags (or "sag ponds" if filled with water) are very common and result where irregularities in the fault trace create local tension and collapse of blocks between branches or strands of the fault. Sags generally are a few hundred metres long and a few metres to tens of metres wide. They may lie from a fraction of a metre to several metres below the surrounding terrain. Elongate grabens similarly are depressed blocks between parallel branches of the fault (Fig. 3).

The Elkhorn Hills are an elongate upwarp, the crest of which is broken into a series of grabens. Some of the grabens have a sigmoid pattern (see Fig. 4), suggestive of broad strike-slip strain. The upwarp may have formed when gouge or brecciated material in a fault zone approximately 2 km wide was squeezed upward in a semi-plastic state by regional stresses normal to the fault zone. The overlying, poorly consolidated, Paso Robles Formation, once upraised, has slid laterally, producing large areas of landslides on the flanks of the upwarp and grabens at the crest. The grabens were later bowed by right-lateral strain into the sigmoid patterns now present. Large landslide blocks moved southwest, crossed the most active strand of the San Andreas fault, and were then transported northwestward from their original position. The elongate block "A" (Fig. 4) may be such a transported landslide block.

SEISMICITY AND FAULT MOVEMENT

This segment of the San Andreas fault is seismically very quiet at present (Brune and Allen, 1967), although the great earthquake of 1857 probably had a magnitude greater than 8. Fault offset



Figure 3. Elongate graben along San Andreas fault.



Figure 4. Grabens at crest of Elkhorn Hills. Note sigmoid pattern of some. Block "A" may be landslide block moved laterally from "B."

during the 1857 earthquake was not accurately recorded, but a circular corral, described by Wood (1955), was offset to produce an "S" shape and clearly demonstrated right-lateral slip of several metres. Numerous small stream channels display offsets of from 7 to 15 m (Wallace, 1968) and warrant the assumption that fault displacements in this range probably occurred in 1857.

Geodimeter measurements made during the period 1959 to 1973 (Savage and others, 1973) indicate very small strain rates. One geodimeter line, trending north-south about 30 km and crossing the fault due west of Taft, shows no appreciable change in length between 1959 and 1973. Examination of fences up to 50 years old that cross the fault revealed no measurable misalignment (Brown and Wallace, 1968).

The amount of displacement of distinctive geologic units suggests offset rates in the range of 1.4 to 2.1 cm per year for the past 10 to 20 million years (Clarke and Nilsen, 1973; Grantz and Dickinson, 1968). The contrast between the long-term rate and the slow or negligible movement in the past few decades has led some workers to describe this segment of the fault as being locked. "Locked," in this sense, conveys the interpretation that elastic strain continues to build up uniformly at a rate equivalent to the long-term offset rate, but that for some reason this segment of the fault is unable to slip and accommodate the elastic strain at present. Rupture can be expected at some time in the future when the strength of the lock is exceeded.

Tectonic slip or "creep," although unknown in this segment of the fault, characterizes the segment to the northwest from Cholame to San Juan Bautista. There, in a few places, measured creep rates very nearly match the long-term offset rate of geologic units, although over much of the segment creep rates are less than 1 cm per year.

EARTHQUAKE RECURRENCE

Repeatedly the question arises, "How often will a great earthquake occur?" One approach to an answer for this segment of the fault is to compare the approximately 10 m of offset that possibly accompanied the 1857 earthquake with the long-term geologic rate of movement of approximately 2 cm per year. At a constant rate of 2 cm per year of elastic strain buildup, 500 years would elapse before the potential for 10 m offset was accumulated. At the rate of 1.4 cm per year, approximately 700 years of accumulation would be required.

Another approach is based on counting small earthquakes that occur often enough for statistical comparisons of numbers of earthquakes at several magnitudes. On a logarithmic graph, the magnitude-census relation plots approximately as a straight line, the slope is expressed as a "b" value, and extrapolation to large infrequent earthquakes is believed to give a useful evaluation of recurrence. An estimate by Allen and others (1965) of the interval between magnitude 8 shocks on the San Andreas fault in southern California based on this approach is 18,300 years, which they concede seems "grossly misleading."

These statements of recurrence interval (sometimes referred to as return period) do not imply that one magnitude 8 earthquake can be expected regularly every 700 years, but rather that over geologic time this would be the average. A better way to state this relation is that there is a 1-in-700 chance (or .14 percent chance) of a great earthquake each year. Even this grossly oversimplifies the problem because it assumes a statistical homogeneity and ignores the likelihood of clustering of events in time. Clustering of major events may be more common than we can now tell from the short recorded history of the fault so that several major earthquakes may occur within a century, separated by a thousand years or more of no large



Figure 5. Stream channel offset about 150 m. Temblor Range in background.



Figure 6. Pattern of channels appears to be controlled by en echelon fractures over the San Andreas fault zone. Note that these are right-stepping, comparable to thrust shears (see Wallace, 1973).

events. In the Caliente Range, Clifton (1968) found sedimentary cycles suggesting tectonic "events (or closely spaced flurries of events) with a periodicity of tens of thousands of years" which he relates to possible recurrent movement along the San Andreas fault.

WHERE TO SEE FAULT FEATURES

A field trip to see excellent features of the fault can be taken on secondary roads between State Highway 58 near Simmler and Highway 33 west of Maricopa. For a field guide map in this area, see the map by Vedder and Wallace (1970).

Starting at State Highway 58 (formerly 178) near Simmler (between Bakersfield and San Luis Obispo), one can take a dirt road in sec. 17, T. 31 S., R. 2 E., southeast from sec. 17, T. 31 S., R. 2 E. The road runs within a few metres of the fault marked by a northeast-facing scarp. In secs. 33 and 34 is one of the clearest examples of stream channel offset (see Fig. 5). Nearby in sec. 3, T. 31 S., R. 20 E., are excellent examples of sags and sag ponds. This is one of the longest (about 14 km) and straightest fault strands of the entire San Andreas fault system. Displacement, as indicated by offset streams, appears to die out to the southeast on this fault strand to be taken up on the next strand to the southeast.

In secs. 29 and 33, T. 31 S., R. 21 E., an elongate graben is well displayed. In its northwestern half, small fault-bounded blocks lie between the two bounding faults and appear in aerial photographs almost as "roller bearings" between the two blocks. In the NW $\frac{1}{4}$ of sec. 11, T. 32 S., R. 21 E., is an excellent set of offset channels, one of which is shown in Figure 1 and may have been offset in 1857.

Along the Elkhorn scarp in secs. 29 and 33, T. 32 S., R. 22 E., an elongate ridge, essentially a shutter ridge, diverts the major drainage from the

Temblor Range. Numerous narrow benches and fresh-appearing scarplets in this area may reflect 1857 movement. Sigmoidal grabens are to be found in sec. 34, T. 32 S., R. 22 E., northeast of the Elkhorn scarp (see Fig. 4).

A complex zone of modified en echelon fractures, rather than a continuous, linear fracture, marks the main trace of the fault in sec. 22, T. 11 N., R. 25 W (see Fig. 6). Strain may be distributed across the entire 1- to 2-km width of the Elkhorn Hills.

From State Highway 33, for a distance of about 4 km northwest, is a series of well-developed sags and sag ponds. From Highway 33 southeast a good paved road follows the fault for about 5 km, crossing the fault twice before winding and climbing to the southwest. Numerous linear ridges representing slivers of rocks between fault strands are visible here.

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SECTION 5

Field Trip Guide



photo 9. Mouth of Painted Canyon, Mecca Hills, looking northwest. Skeleton Canyon, in foreground immediately to right of the darkly shadowed hills, contains the trace of San Andreas fault.
J. S. Shelton Photograph No. 6818, 24 Nov. 1974, 6500 ft. elevation.



Photo 10. Looking northwest up Lone Pine Canyon which contains the San Andreas fault. This view is taken just southwest of Cajon Pass. Cajon Creek, with railways and freeway (Interstate 15), in foreground. Note Lost Lake, a sag pond in center foreground along the fault just across Cajon Creek, the railways, and the freeway.
J. S. Shelton Photograph No. 6849, 24 Nov. 1974, 8500 ft. elevation.

FIELD TRIP GUIDE TO THE SAN ANDREAS FAULT IN SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA

Perry L. Ehlig
Department of Geology
California State University
Los Angeles, California 90032

and

John C. Crowell
Department of Geological Sciences
University of California
Santa Barbara, California 93106

INTRODUCTION

Although this guide was especially prepared for a 3-day bus trip, it is intended for general use by individuals and groups who wish to become acquainted with the features and problems of the San Andreas fault in southern California. The guide starts near the Salton Sea and ends north of Bakersfield. More points of interest are included in the guide than can be observed on a single three-day trip. This has been done to permit users of the guidebook to select among trips and to organize one- and two-day trips along segments of the route.

Instructions on how to reach points of interest are enclosed in []. Mileage from reference points is underlined. Starting points are marked by 0.0. You will find it helpful to trace out the itinerary on the southern half of the Geologic Map of California (1972 ed.; scale 1:750,000) which accompanies this guidebook.

MECCA HILLS TO SAN BERNARDINO

0. [Starting on the east side of Indio at the intersection of Dillon Road and State 86-111 proceed southeastward to Mecca on State 111, as shown in Fig. 1. (Indio is about 130 mi. from Los Angeles.) At 10.8 turn left on State 195 into Mecca. The road crosses the Southern Pacific railroad tracks, passes through the town of Mecca and proceeds east toward the Mecca Hills.]

Indio (el. -14 ft.) and Mecca (el. -39 ft.) are within the Salton Trough. This region has periodically been flooded by the Colorado River. As recently as 40 years ago all of the area below the elevation of 45 ft. above sea level was

inundated by Lake Coahuila whose shore-line features are well preserved. Shells of tiny gastropods which lived within it are ubiquitous within the lake bed sands.

15.8 [Road crosses Coachella Canal; proceed 0.5 mi. to turn off to Painted Canyon. Highway 195 continues ahead into Box Canyon.]

16.3/0.0 [Turn left (west) onto graded gravel road leading to Painted Canyon.]

To the north lie the Mecca Hills with deeply incised badlands topography. The modern San Andreas fault trends north-west across the southern margin of the hills. Streaks of red clay gouge mark its location. Dark gravel-strewn slopes in the foreground are underlain by Pleistocene Ocotillo Conglomerate which contains abundant schist debris derived from the Orocopia Mountains to the east and subsequently offset by several miles of right slip along the San Andreas fault. The ruggedly sculptured part of the Mecca Hills is underlain by the Pliocene-Pleistocene Palm Spring Formation. It consists mainly of sandstone and conglomerate deposited as alluvial fans descending southward from the Little San Bernardino and Cottonwood Mountains to the north. Greenish lacustrine beds of micaceous sandstone, siltstone and claystone interfinger with fluvial beds in the southern part of the hills. The Palm Spring Formation unconformably overlies a faulted mosaic of heterogeneous basement rocks within the pre-Pleistocene San Andreas fault zone. The hills have formed since mid-Pleistocene time by a combination of broad arching and smaller-scale folding and faulting. As uplift proceeded drainage from the Little San Bernardino and Cottonwood Mountains continued to flow southward through incised canyons, including Box Canyon and Painted

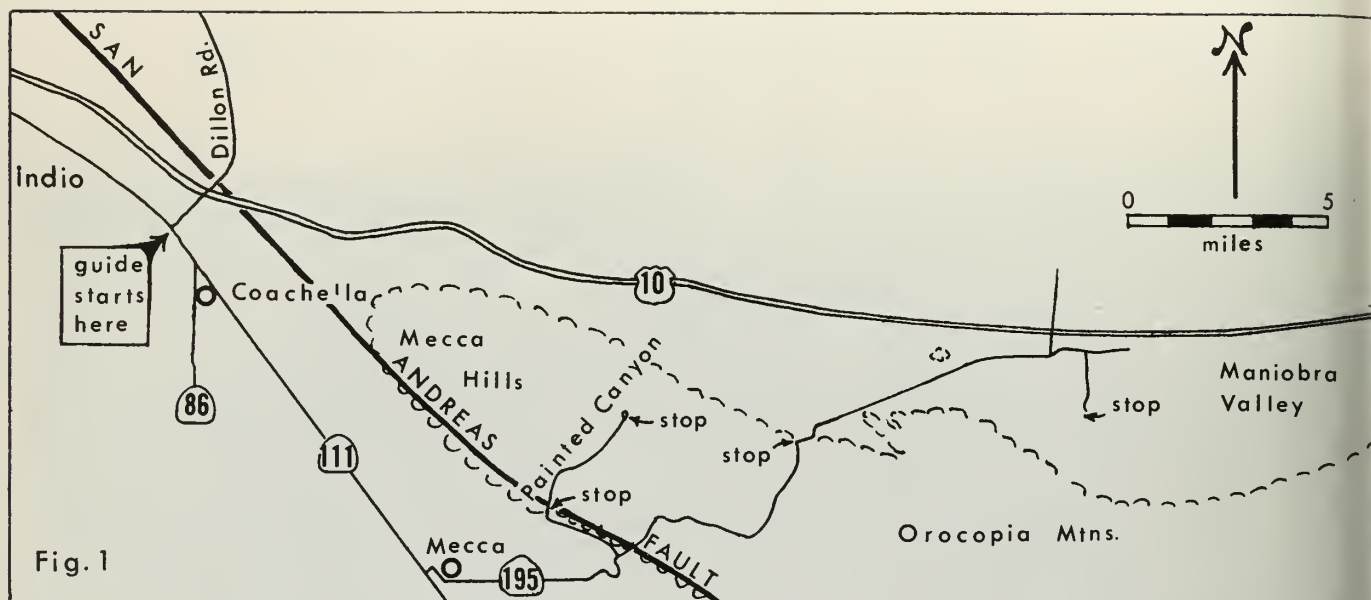


Fig. 1

Canyon. The geology of Painted Canyon is described by Sylvester and Smith (this vol.).

2.6 [As you enter Painted Canyon turn right on dirt road; proceed 0.2 mi. and park near clay pit.]

2.8 Skeleton Canyon Stop

The San Andreas fault trends N45°W across the mouth of Painted Canyon and into Skeleton Canyon. The red material on the ridges and in the clay pit is gouge. Examine exposures in bulldozer cuts directly east on the south side of Skeleton Canyon. Slickensides occur here with many orientations indicating a complex pattern of movement within the gouge zone. Excellent exposures are also present 0.5 mi. up Skeleton Canyon displaying a drag fold and large phacoids of sandstone encased in clay gouge.

From the mouth of Skeleton Canyon walk southward around the ridge spur and south-eastward along the base of the main ridge for nearly 1500 feet. Take the trail over the low ridge and descend into Aiken's Corner (locality H is in Fig. 1, Sylvester and Smith, this vol.). Observe the tight, steeply plunging drag folds in the Palm Spring Formation. (The formation is soft so avoid stepping on embossed parts of the folds.) Continue down the wash to where steeply dipping beds of

Ocotillo Conglomerate contain abundant clasts of gray Orocoopia Schist. Clast imbrication indicates derivation from the northeast, and from a schist source area now displaced by right slip on the San Andreas fault.

[Return to vehicles and proceed up Painted Canyon.]

3.5 Note anticline and syncline on west side of canyon and great thickness of the Palm Spring Formation between here and the next stop.

3.7 Green siltstone bed east of road contains abundant tiny shells of freshwater gastropods indicating deposition in a fresh water lake.

4.2 Drag folds along minor fault on west side of canyon separate light colored beds of Palm Spring Formation on south from red, locally derived sandstone, conglomerate and breccia of the Mecca Formation on north.

4.5 Sheared and altered gneissic basement, squeezed upward within the core of a major anticline.

4.7 On west side of canyon vertical beds terminate downward along buttress unconformity. Beds were originally deposited against a southwest-facing fault-line scarp in the basement rock and later tilted 90 degrees (see Sylvester and Smith, this vol.).

.9 Painted Canyon Anticline Stop

Graded road ends here but cars can usually proceed to next stop up north branch of Painted Canyon without difficulty. Buses must turn around here.]

Tight, faulted folds are exposed on the ridge east and a chevron anticline is exposed at the mouth of Anticline Canyon to the west. This zone of strong deformation trends northwestward through the entire length of the Mecca Hills. It overlies the Painted Canyon fault, an inactive branch of the San Andreas, which formed a southward-facing scarp during deposition of the Mecca and Palm Spring Formation. These formations are several thousand feet thick and strongly deformed to the southwest of the Painted Canyon fault but only a few hundred feet thick and gently deformed to the northeast.

Anticline Canyon, well worth exploring, provides a path to the top of the ridge with spectacular views of the Painted Canyon fault zone and the Mecca Anticline with a core of deformed basement. When you reach an apparent impass at a dry waterfall with a bedding plane thrust exposed in the west wall, climb through the collapsed blocks partially concealing the canyon to the north and proceed through a narrow passage.

After completing this stop, walk or drive up the north branch of Painted Canyon.]

.4 Entrance to Ladder Canyon on northeast; an excellent place to observe a narrow, vertically-incised canyon.

.5 Gneiss exposed unconformably beneath Palm Springs Formation. Locally derived breccia of the Mecca Formation fills low spots in the unconformity.

.8 Anorthosite Stop

A low dry waterfall prevents vehicles from going further up canyon.]

Complexly folded migmatitic gneiss is exposed in the canyon wall. It is probably Precambrian in age but has not been dated. Proceed up canyon. Volcanic dikes

intrude the gneiss in several places. About 500 feet up canyon, white, highly altered anorthosite is faulted over gneiss. The fault is truncated by the unconformity at the base of the Palm Spring Formation. Continue up canyon through the second main bend to the left. Here the anorthosite and related dioritic rocks are cut by a dike of porphyritic, rapakivi-textured quartz latite porphyry similar to dikes in the northern Chocolate Mountains (see Ehlig, Ehlert and Crowe, this vol.). Clasts of this rock type occur in the Mint Canyon Formation in Soledad Basin to the west of the San Andreas fault and in the Caliente Formation near Frazier Park to the west of the San Gabriel fault.

A few small exposures of fairly fresh anorthosite and related rocks occur up canyon. Orocopia schist is also exposed but can be seen more easily at Shaver's Well.

0.0 [Painted Canyon turnoff and State 195; turn left and take State 195 into Box Canyon.]

0.5 San Andreas fault crosses highway.

1.0 Skeleton Canyon fault marked by change in dips west of road.

1.5-1.6 After rounding turn, a local angular unconformity is visible in Palm Spring Formation to left (south); slow down or stop as road curves to north to observe unconformity ahead to left (north). It indicates tectonic activity during deposition.

3.0-3.7 Road obliquely crosses same zone of deformation as seen at Painted Canyon Anticline. Note folds.

3.5 Tight syncline on ridge spur ahead to right (south) of road.

6.9 Buttress unconformity of Palm Spring Formation against Mesozoic(?) Orocopia Schist. Alluvial terrace gravels are also present.

7.1 Shaver's Well Stop

[Park near trees on left side of road.]

Orocopia schist exposed here consists mainly of green actinolite-chlorite-

epidote-albite schist derived from basic volcanics; the more common gray muscovite-albite-quartz schist, derived from graywacke, siltstone and shale, is exposed a short distance up canyon. Banded quartzite layers are metamorphosed chert. Milk quartz is of vein origin. The Orocopia Schist is identical to Pelona Schist seen later.

7.3 Fanglomerates dip north as road exits from Mecca Hills.

8.8 View east along Orocopia thrust with Orocopia Schist to south and Precambrian syenite to north.

10.2 Dirt road turnoff for those wishing to see syenite in outcrop. The Syenite is considered the same as that south of the San Andreas fault near Palmdale.

11.5 Conglomerate and sandstone of the Eocene marine Maniobra Formation unconformably overlies granitic rocks on the hill to west.

14.2 [Intersection with Pinto Rd; Interstate 10 to north. To see Eocene Maniobra Formation take Pinto Rd. east 0.6 mi. then turn south on dirt road; proceed 1.3 mi. then park next to ridge on right.]

16.1 Maniobra Formation

Coarse conglomerate and breccia are the dominant lithology in this area, but with some calcareous sandstone. Fossil fragments occur in yellow silty layers and in clasts of silty sandstone. The main fossil localities are five miles east in Maniobra Valley (see Crowell and Susuki, 1959, for details). This isolated occurrence of Marine Eocene presents difficulties for reconstruction of Eocene paleogeography (see Howell, this vol.).

Clasts of syenite and anorthosite (rare), eroded from the hills to the south, can be collected from the alluvium in this area for comparison with similar rocks south of the San Andreas near Palmdale. The syenite is a dark rock composed mainly of feldspar (mesoperthite).

[Return to westbound Interstate 10.]

0.0 [Entering Interstate 10 westbound.]

18.1 Ahead to right Ocotillo Conglomerate

is steeply tilted and unconformably overlain by old alluvium. Fault scarp on northeast side is clearly visible on aerial photos.

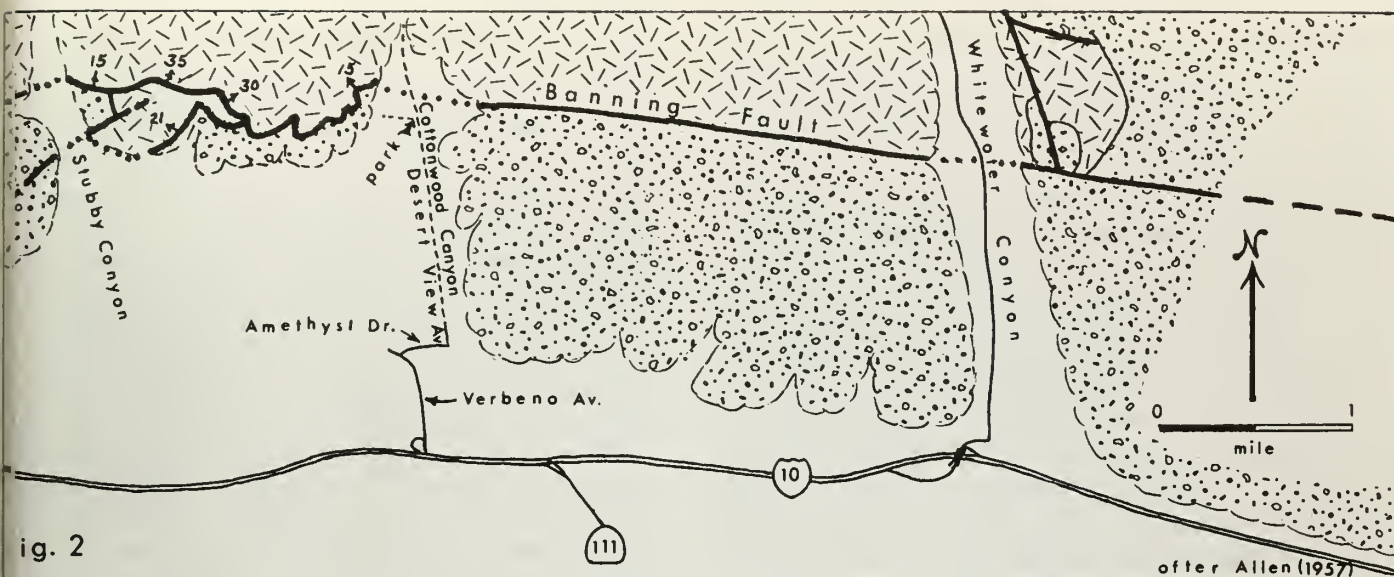
22.1 [Take Dillon Road north for scenic drive along north side of Indio Hills; then take Thousand Palms Canyon Road south through the hills and rejoin Interstate 10 at Kubic Road in Thousand Palms

The San Andreas fault crosses Dillon Road 0.6 mi. north of Interstate 10. Prominent vegetation occurs on the north side due to impounding of southward-flowing ground water. Several groves of native Washingtonia palms mark springs along the San Andreas fault in the Indio Hills. The fault splits into a north branch (Mission Creek fault) and a south branch (Banning fault) which bound the main body of the Indio Hills west of Thousand Palms Canyon. Most of the pre-Pleistocene offset was probably along the north branch as shown by the apparent offset of formations exposed in the San Bernardino Mountains (see Dibblee, this vol.).

The Indio Hills are similar to the Mecca Hills. Pleistocene fanglomerate (Ocotillo Formation) is the most widely exposed formation. The Palm Spring Formation is extensively exposed in the eastern part of the hills and locally elsewhere. The Miocene-Pliocene marine Imperial Formation, consisting of fine-grained sandstone and claystone, forms conspicuous yellow-brown outcrops along the southern base of the hills a mile west of Thousand Palms Canyon at Willis Palms. These exposures are accessible by car. Exposures also occur in the northwestern part of the Indio Hills. The formation is not known to occur east of the Mission Creek branch of the San Andreas fault.

0.0 [Interstate 10 west bound at Kubic Road in Thousand Palms (25 mi. by way of Dillon Road and Thousand Palms Road but 15 mi. by freeway from Dillon Road and Interstate 10).]

9-10 Garnet Hill on left (south) is domed up along the north side of the



arnet Hill fault. A cap of coarse fan-glomerate, including breccia, derived from the San Jacinto Mountains to the south overlies the Imperial Formation.

2) A line of vegetation marks the Banning branch of the San Andreas fault to the north. San Gorgonio Pass is straight ahead to the west with the San Bernardino mountains on the right (north) and the San Jacinto Mountains on the left (south).

4 An anticline in Pleistocene Cabazon fanglomerate forms the hill on the right (north).

5.3/0.0 [Take Whitewater turnoff; go right (north) up Whitewater Canyon (see fig. 2).]

Refer to Petersen (this vol.) and Allen (1957) for the geology of this area.

5.5 Banning fault trends N85°W across canyon placing Cabazon fanglomerate on south against granitic and gneissic rocks on north. Note vegetation line where active fault crosses alluvium in the canyon bottom.

6.1 On east side of canyon, Whitewater fault (trending N30W) places old alluvium against upper Miocene Coachella fanglomerate.

6.9 Road ends at Trout Farm. Coachella fanglomerate forms east wall of canyon. Mission Creek fault 3 mi. north; juncture of Mission Creek and Pinto Mountain faults (mi. northwest (see Dibblee, this vol.)). Return to Interstate 10 and proceed 2.6 mi. west to Verbena turnoff.]

From Cottonwood Canyon, 2 mi. west of Whitewater, to Millard Canyon, 6 mi. further west, the basement rocks north of Banning fault are thrust over sedimentary rocks to the south (Allen, 1957). As seen from Interstate 10, the thrust separates brown hills in the foreground from the steep greenish gray and white banded slopes to the north. The thrust is accessible on the east side of Cottonwood Canyon (next stop). The thrust occurs where the San Andreas fault bends abruptly, perhaps due to left slip along the Pinto Mountain fault (Allen, 1957, and Dibblee, this vol.).

26.1 Cottonwood Canyon Stop

[Refer to Fig. 2. The roads are unsuited for buses. Take Verbena Av. turn off from Interstate 10; follow Verbena Av. 0.4 mi. north; turn right (east) on Amethyst Dr.; continue 0.3 mi. then turn left (north) on Desert View Av. (gravel road rises onto flood control berm), continue north 1.2 mi. and park in broad area or take jeep road 0.1 mi. to west side of canyon.]

Pleistocene Cabazon fanglomerate forms the lower gravelly slopes at west entrance of Cottonwood Canyon. Sheared granitic and gneissic rocks overlie it along a fault dipping gently northward. The fault is easily traced around a low

ridge spur and adjacent canyon.

[Return to Interstate 10 at Verbena Av. and proceed 16.7 mi. west to Beaumont.]
0.0 [Take Beaumont Av. north from Interstate 10 to view the San Andreas fault at Oak Glen. Beaumont Av. changes to Oak Glen Rd.]

The road follows the west side of Little San Geronio Canyon. The dissected terrace surface along the canyon is a continuation of the surface that forms Banning Bench to the north of Banning.

8.8 Road swings west; the active south branch of the San Andreas fault is 0.4 mi. north. Old alluvium on south is faulted against gneissic basement on north. Young rift topography characteristic of the fault zone to the west ends 2 mi. to the southeast and is absent from there to the vicinity of Whitewater Canyon.

10.8 Oak Glen Stop

[Park just before hairpin turn, 1 mi. west of Oak Glen Village.]

This stop is on a shutter ridge within the San Andreas fault zone. Basement rocks form steep terrain across the fault zone to the north. There is a prominent scarp along the south side of this ridge. Seeps occur along the base of the scarp beyond which is a steep westward descending alluvial fan. Looking northwest on a clear day, the San Andreas zone is a clearly etched groove in the topography. The fault bends conspicuously to the right toward Cajon Pass; the eastern San Gabriel Mountains rise behind and left (west) of Cajon Pass.

Note houses in the Oak Glen area; if an earthquake occurs here, many are likely to experience severe damage due to construction on steep slopes and soft ground within the fault zone.

15.7 [Intersection of Oak Glen Rd. and Bryant St.; turn north on Bryant St. and continue to Mill Creek Rd.]

18.0 [Turn right (north) on Mill Creek Rd. (State 38).]

19.1 Potato Sandstone Stop

[Park in turnout on west side of road opposite historical monument.]

The active south branch of the San Andreas fault is concealed by alluvium 0.3 mi. to the south; the inactive north branch is 2 mi. to the north. Sheared basement rocks are exposed in road cuts the south of the parking area and Pliocene Potato Sandstone is exposed to the north. Examine the Potato Sandstone in exposures below the road and in the vicinity of the south abutment of Mill Creek Bridge. Here the formation consists of conglomerate and sedimentary breccia with abundant clasts of Pelona Schist or Orocopia Schist along with granitic and gneissic clasts. Suggestions of imbrication imply transport from the southwest to the northeast. Beds of sandstone and siltstone with ripple marks and bottom lineations are locally present. Bluffs north of the bridge expose well bedded sandstone and shale with tongues of schist breccia. The Potato Sandstone is believed to have been deposited in a trough along the south side of the north branch of the San Andreas fault. Data acquired by Gibson (1971) indicates that the sediments were derived primarily from the north, probably from the Orocopia Mountains. The beds are therefore offset about 60 mi. laterally from their probable source.

0.0 [West bound on Mill Creek Rd. (State 38) at Bryant St.]

The Crafton Hills are to the southwest. South-dipping Pelona Schist crops out in the northern part of the hills. The schist is overlain, to the south, by clastic rocks of the Vincent thrust, above which are granitic and gneissic rocks (see Ehlig, this vol.).

1.1 Light rocks in the hillside and road cut are dikes and sills of Miocene quartz latite porphyry which intrudes Pelona Schist.

3.1 [Turn right (north) on Garnet St.]

4.1 the road turns left (west) and becomes Florida St.; 0.8 mi. farther the road turns north and becomes Greenspot Rd. Continue across wash and park north of bridge.]

0 Santa Ana Wash Stop

The San Andreas fault is exposed in the bluff on the east side of the wash. Rushed granitic rocks occur to the north of the fault and old alluvium occurs to the south. Note the huge boulders in the wash. The Santa Ana River drains a large area within the San Bernardino Mountains and occasionally experiences high runoff.

Follow Greenspot Rd. 5 mi. to State Highway 30; turn right and proceed 1.7 mi. to intersection of Highland Av. and State Highway 330.]

SAN BERNARDINO AREA

There has been extensive construction along the San Andreas and San Jacinto fault zones within this area making it ideal for the study of potential risks and hazards attendant upon such construction. What types of structures should be permitted along the faults and within the fault zones, what special engineering precautions are needed and how great is the resulting risk to life and property? Opinions vary, only hindsight can afford an absolute answer.

Refer to Morton (this vol.) and Morton and Miller (this vol.) for a discussion of faults in the San Bernardino area.

San Andreas Fault Zone Stops

The San Andreas fault zone is extensively developed along the foot of the San Bernardino Mountains from State 330 (the highway to Running Springs and Big Bear Lake) westward to San Bernardino State College. Expensive homes are built within the fault zone and there is an apparent propensity to place water tanks immediately uphill from scarps. The following are but a few of the points worth seeing.

[Start at the intersection of State 330 and Highland Av. (see fig. 3). Go west on Highland Av. for 0.7 mi. then turn right (north) on Palm Av. Continue to the end and then go right (east) on Citrus St. to the end.] Here, a new tract has been

developed across the fault zone. A large water tank is on the hill above the scarp and an elementary school is on the valley side of the scarp.

[Proceed 1.0 mi. west on Highland from Palm Av. and turn right (north) on Victoria Av.; continue 0.8 mi. north then turn right (east) on Lynwood Dr. to Serrano Junior High School.]

The two water tanks to the northeast are along the fault zone. The junior high school appears to be just south of the fault.

Drive north on Victoria Av. from Lynwood Dr. 0.2 mi. and then turn left (west) on Marshall Blvd.; continue 0.5 mi. then right (north) on Arden for 0.2 mi. to Foothill Dr., turn left and continue 0.2 mi. west to Manzanita Dr.; turn right (north) and drive uphill across the fault scarp. Road curves east and becomes Willow; take Willow to end.] Note the fault trench to the east, the water tank to the north and the fault scarp to the south.

San Bernardino State College is a mile east of Interstate Highway 15 directly southwest of the San Andreas fault. Good scarps occur along the foot of the mountains to the northeast. The campus is on alluvium which conceals faults which may be present beneath the site.

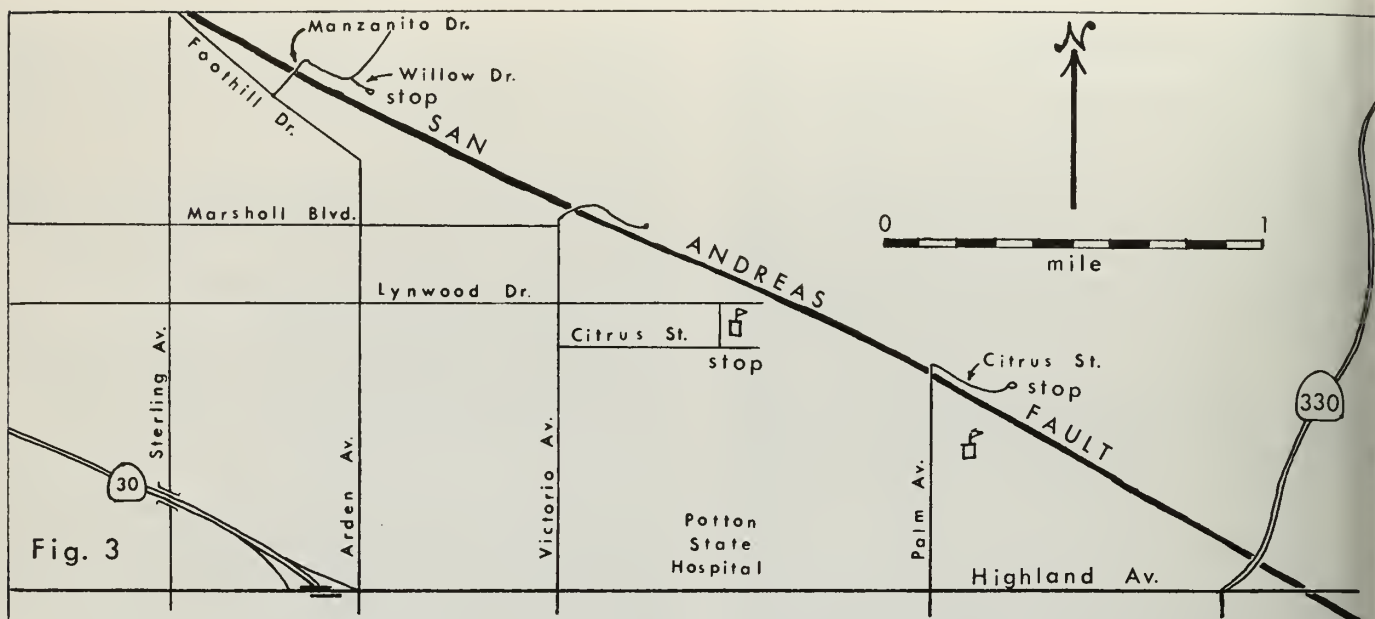
Those wishing to observe the Cucamonga fault zone along the foot of the San Gabriel Mountains to the west should refer to Morton (this vol.).

Interchange of Interstate 10 and 15 (San Bernardino and Barstow Freeways)

This artistic interchange with high overpasses straddles the San Jacinto fault (Fig. 4).

San Bernardino Valley College Stop

[The campus can be reached by going north on Mt. Vernon Av. from Interstate Highway 10 or west on Mill St. from Interstate Highway 15 as shown in Fig. 4.]



The campus is constructed on Bunker Hill which is a pressure ridge along the San Jacinto fault. When construction began in 1926, the hill was believed to be an anticline in tertiary sediments. In 1935, when its true nature was learned, John P. Buwalda of the California Institute of Technology was engaged to make a study. Buwalda recommended strengthening of existing buildings and recommended against placing future buildings across fault scarps, but he did not consider it necessary to move the campus. Additional detailed studies have been undertaken in recent years. Refer to Allen (1971) for further information.

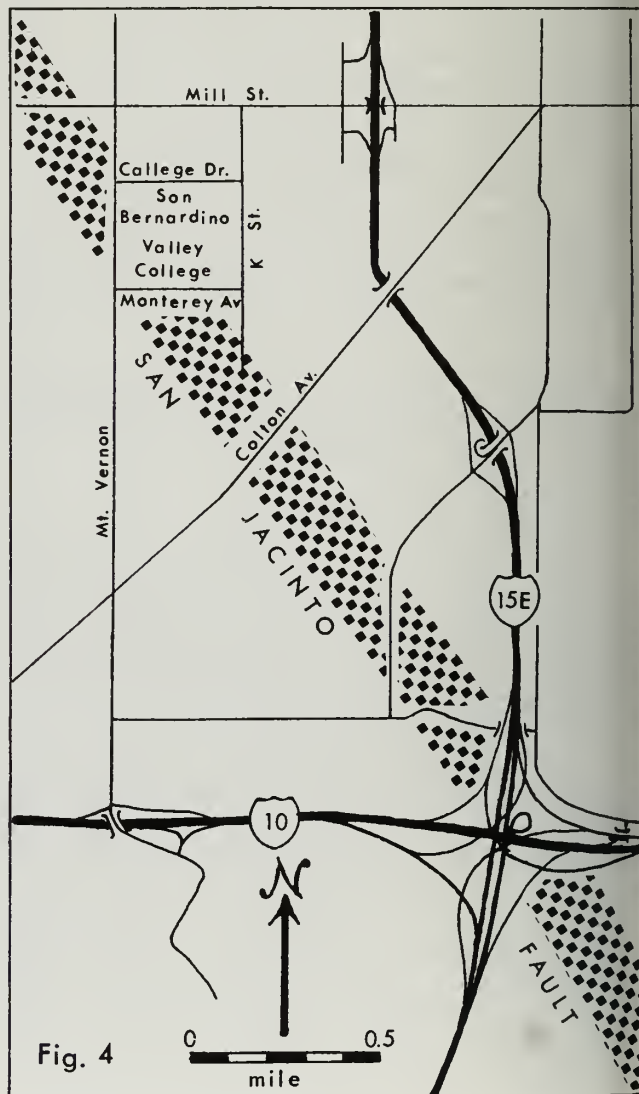
CAJON PASS TO PALMDALE

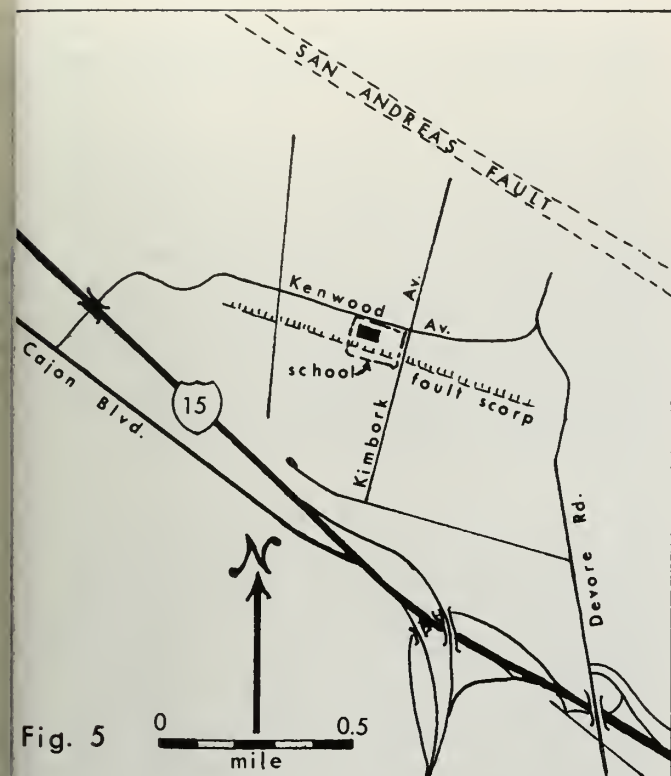
[Take Interstate 15 (Barstow Freeway) north from San Bernardino. Turn off at Devore Rd. on south side of Cajon Pass (Fig. 5).]

0.0 [Devore Road turnoff from Interstate 15. Go north on Devore Rd. 1.0 mi., turn left (northwest) on Kenwood Rd. and continue 0.4 mi. to Kimbark Elementary School.] Note the north facing scarp in the alluvial terrace south of Kenwood Rd.

1.4 Kimbark School Stop

Kimbark Elementary School, completed in 1969, is within a prominent trough to





outh of road. A backfacing scarp of an active fault trends northwest across the playground at rear of school. The scarp is well exposed on the east side of Kimbark Av. The main San Andreas fault is to north at base of slope.

Continue northwest on Kenwood, pass under Interstate 15.]

6.5 [Cajon Boulevard; turn right and go north into Cajon Pass.]

Road cuts are in Mesozoic(?) Pelona Schist. This schist forms exposed basement along the south side of the San Andreas fault for nearly 50 miles in this area but does not occur north of the fault. The well bedded, gray-colored schists are muscovite-albite quartz schists derived from interbedded graywacke, siltstone and shale.

6.4-6.7 Blue Cut Stop

After rounding the turn note the heavy fence constructed along part of Blue Cut to prevent fractured quartz diorite from falling on road. The quartz diorite is in a fault slice with Pelona Schist on

either side. Note the unfaulted, nearly horizontal unconformity at base of alluvial terrace above railroad tracks. Although this terrace may be only a few thousand years old, it indicates the underlying bedrock is quite rigid. Much of the Pelona Schist exposed along Cajon Creek below the terrace is in a coherent condition.

The San Andreas fault crossed Cajon Creek at the northern edge of the gray-green outcrops in the canyon bottom (at 6.7 mi.). Cajon Canyon is offset obliquely about 1.5 mi. right laterally. A small ravine in old alluvium between Cajon Creek and Lost Lake (to west) is offset 0.2 mi. to the right.

7.3 North dipping Paleocene marine sandstone, siltstone and conglomerate rest unconformably on gneissic basement.

Lower Miocene marine rocks also occur north of the San Andreas in Cajon Valley.

7.4 [Turn left and follow road past Cajon Campground and southward across railroad track.]

8.0 San Andreas fault crosses south of house with red tile roof.

8.4 [Pavement ends; take gravel road to right along power line; go 0.1 mi. then take left branch 0.2 mi. to Lost Lake.]

8.7 Lost Lake Stop

Lost Lake is a spring-fed sag pond along the San Andreas fault. The lake retains water throughout the year despite high evaporation rates during summer and its elevation of about 150 feet above nearby Cajon Creek.

The trace of the San Andreas trends N55°W up Lone Pine Canyon and forms the notch in the hill beyond Interstate 15 to the southeast.

10.0 [Return to Cajon Blvd. and continue north 2.2 mi. to freeway entrance.] The Miocene Punchbowl Formation forms colorful ridges to the northwest.

12.2 [Enter northbound Interstate 15; continue 0.8 mi. and take the Wrightwood turnoff (State 138). Go right (east)

0.2 mi. on State Highway 138 and park in broad area on south.]

13.2 Crowder Stop

The Pliocene to lower Pleistocene (?) Crowder Formation, consisting of fluvial sandstone and conglomerate, is exposed in the cut to the north. Clasts include common granitic rocks, a distinctive dark fine-grained spotted phyllite and some volcanic rocks. Clast imbrication indicates derivation from east or northeast (eastern part of cut). The bulk of hill to the north of the cut consists of granodiorite with the Crowder Formation deposited against it along a buttress unconformity.

0.0 [Head west on State Highway 138; start mileage at Interstate 15.]

2.0 Mormon Rocks Stop

[Park well off of the road to the west of the low saddle beyond Mormon Rock Ranger Station. Watch out for fast moving vehicles.]

The hogbacks are formed from northeastward tilted sandstone and conglomerate of the Miocene Punchbowl Formation which is of fluvial origin. Clasts include volcanic and granitic rocks and spotted phyllite. Clast imbrication indicates derivation from the northeast. The detailed stratigraphy is described by Woodburne and Golz (1972) and by Woodburne (this vol.).

The type Punchbowl Formation is exposed 20 mi. west in Devil's Punchbowl to the south of the San Andreas fault. Noble (1954) considered the type section to have originated opposite the Cajon Valley beds and to have been subsequently offset by right slip along the San Andreas fault. Such an explanation, however, poses difficulties because evidence elsewhere suggests that this branch of the San Andreas should have about 125 mi. of post Miocene right slip, not just 20 mi. Studies by Woodburne and Golz (1972) show that the Cajon beds are middle to upper Miocene in

age whereas the Punchbowl Formation of the type area is early Pliocene in age. The type area was also deposited by streams flowing from the east and north-east (Pelka, 1971) and contains granitic and volcanic clasts; however phyllite clasts found in the Cajon Valley beds are not present in the type area whereas the type area contains distinctive clasts of "polka-dot granite". This distinctive rock is a quartz monzonite containing large cordierite crystals partially weathered to iron oxide. It is absent from beds in Cajon Valley.

The bluffs along the skyline to the northeast consist of Pleistocene alluvial gravels derived from the San Gabriel Mountains to the south. The upper gravels at Cajon Summit consist almost entirely of Pelona Schist clasts. The lowest part of the section contains clasts of Lowe Granodiorite and other rock types found in place within the central and western San Gabriel Mountains as well as clasts of Paleocene sandstone and rare "Polka-dot granite", probably derived from the Punchbowl Formation in Devil's Punchbowl. This suggests that 20 to 25 mi. of right slip has occurred along this strand of the San Andreas fault since deposition of the lower bed. These gravels provide the first indication of the rising of the San Gabriel Mountains to the south of this area.

[Continue west on State Highway 138 for 6.6 mi.]

8.6/0.0 [Turn left onto State Highway and proceed toward Wrightwood.]

1.5 Cajon Valley fault crosses the ridge to the east. Steeply inclined beds of Punchbowl Formation crop out northeast of the fault and basement rocks crop out to the southwest. Basement rocks to the north of the San Andreas fault in this area consist of granitic rocks (quartz monzonite to quartz diorite) and migmatitic gneiss containing pods and layers of marble. These rocks have not been dated but the marble and gneiss are probably derived from Paleozoic strata and the granitic rocks and metamorphism are

probably Cretaceous. Similar rocks crop out at the west end of the San Bernardino Mountains.

.6 The large white area on the mountain head is a marble quarry.

.2 Sheep Creek, to west of the road, is noted for mudflows of Pelona Schist debris. The flows originate in a landslide area on the north side of Wright Mountain (8505 ft.) at the head of Heath Canyon, directly south of Wrightwood. The dark schist fragments makes Sheep Creek's alluvial fan stand out on the ERTS photo of this area.

The town of Wrightwood is spread across Warthout Valley, eroded along the San Andreas fault zone to the west of Lone Pine Canyon. The 1857 fault break (identified by trenching) is along the downhill side of Wright lake and Twin Lakes, upslope from the main part of town. Alluvium covers most of the valley floor so there is uncertainty regarding the condition of the underlying bedrock.

To the west of Wrightwood, a half mile beyond the Los Angeles-San Bernardino county line, the highway skirts the top of the 1857 scarp. A highway maintenance station rests on alluvium on the uphill side to the north; a marshy area lies to the south.

.7/0.0 Big Pine Junction Pause Stop

The 1857 scarp is on the north side of the intersection and extends behind theanger station to the east. The fire station to the west is on saturated ground within the fault zone but is south of the 1857 break.

The road goes 1.1 mi. to Table Mountain (7516 ft.) which affords an excellent view of the Mojave Desert. Note that the San Andreas fault slices across the San Gabriel Mountains at this location without any apparent vertical uplift along it. The mountains have been uplifted by arching as shown by northward dips of 20° to 30° in the oldest Pleistocene gravels along the foot of the range to the north.

At 0.2 mi. up Table Mountain Rd., folded beds of clay, silt and pebbly sand and gravel are exposed in the road cut downhill from marble outcrops. Shells of tiny gastropods and ostracods occur in some yellowish silty beds. These and similar beds, which occur sporadically along the fault zone to the west, were apparently deposited in sag ponds along the fault.

0.0 [From Big Pine Junction go left (southwest) on Angeles Crest Highway (State 2) to the top of Blue Ridge then park in the overview.] Blue Ridge is composed exclusively of Pelona Schist.

1.9 Blue Ridge Overview Stop

The Punchbowl fault, trending along the southern edge of Blue Ridge, is an old inactive strand of the San Andreas fault system with about 25 mi. of right slip along it (Dibblee, this vol.). It is not a continuation of the young, highly active San Jacinto fault.

Pelona Schist is exposed immediately south of the Punchbowl fault. Farther south the Vincent thrust places gneissic and plutonic rocks of the San Gabriel Mountains over the schist. The thrust crops out on Mt. Baden-Powell (9399 ft.) to the southwest at about eye level, a few hundred feet above a light colored swarm of Miocene dacite and quartz latite sills. A thick zone of mylonitic and retrograde metamorphic rocks forms the base of the upper plate. Thrusting occurred synchronously with prograde metamorphism of Pelona Schist during late Cretaceous or early Cenozoic (Ehlig, this vol.). The thrust crosses the north flanks of Iron Mtn. (8007 ft.) to the south and Mt. San Antonio (Mt. Baldy, 10064 ft.) to the southeast.

The eastern San Gabriel Valley and points beyond are visible to the south on a clear day.

[Continue west on Angeles Crest Highway to Vincent Gap.]

5.0 Vincent Gap Stop

The Punchbowl fault trends about N65°W through this gap. Red sandstone and conglomerate, Punchbowl Formation (?), exposed south of the parking area are in fault contact with basement rocks upslope to the south. A fault slice of granitic rocks intervenes between sandstone and Pelona Schist on the north side of the gap. A fault slice of sedimentary breccia, exposed on the ridge spur between Vincent Gulch and Prairie Fork to the southeast, contains blocks of syenite probably derived from outcrops west of Soledad Pass and offset by right slip.

[Return to Big Pine Junction]

0.0 [Big Pine Junction, take L.A. Co. Rd. 4N08 west along San Andreas toward Valyermo.]

2.8 Jackson Lake is a sag pond formed in part by a shutter ridge on north blocking canyon to south. A sliver of steeply dipping Pleistocene(?) sandstone and conglomerate crops out north of the road.

3.0 [Entrance to Jackson Lake.]

The Fenner fault is truncated by the San Andreas fault beneath the hill to the southwest. The Pelona Schist of Blue Ridge lies south of the Fenner fault and granitic and gneissic rocks capped by Paleocene marine sandstone lie to the north. The Fenner fault is considered to be an eastward continuation of the Franciscito-Clearwater fault which has been offset 25 mi. to the right along Nadeau-Punchbowl fault (Dibblee, this vol.).

4.0 Excellent view looking west along Trace of San Andreas to Tehachapi Mtns. From here to Coldwell Lake fault rift topography, including prominent trenches and shutter ridges, occurs along the north side of the road.

7.3 Coldwell Lake, the small sag pond in the half-mile long depression to the south is probably the offset head of Grandview Canyon to the east.

From here to Big Rock Creek, Pleistocene gravels occur along and to the north of the fault.

11.6 [Turn left (south) onto Big Rock Creek Road.]

Gneissic and granitic rocks of Pinyon Ridge to the east are unconformably overlain by the Paleocene marine Franciscito Formation (Sage, this vol.). To the southwest, the Pliocene Punchbowl Formation unconformably overlies Paleocene strata in the Devil's Punchbowl, an area of spectacular exposures formed by differential erosion of strata within a westward plunging syncline.

12.7 Big Rock Creek Stop

Sandstone and conglomerate of the Franciscito Formation are well exposed on both sides of the canyon.

[Continue up canyon past upper Big Rock Creek turnoff.]

Thinly interbedded siltstone and sandstone of the Franciscito Formation are exposed on the slope west of Big Rock Creek. Across the valley to the southeast, the Punchbowl fault separates red sandstone of the Punchbowl Formation from gray basement rocks.

15.2 Paradise Springs Stop

[Park off road 0.2 mi. east of Paradise Springs turnoff.]

Siltstone and sedimentary breccia of the Franciscito Formation rest unconformably on granitic and gneissic basement upslope to the north. The breccia beds are easily mistaken for basement in place but can be distinguished by rounded pebbles and cobbles scattered through the matrix. The unconformity is an uneven surface which has been tilted southward. Good boots and a vigorous hike are required to visit the outcrops.

[Return to entrance to Big Rock Creek.]

0.0 [Turn left and go west on Valyermo Rd.]

0.3 From Bob's Gap Rd. to Pallett Creek the main San Andreas fault is south of the road but the zone of disturbed rock nearly a mile wide. Holcomb Ridge to the north consists of relatively unfaulted granitic rocks with a marble pendant trending N70°W along the crest.

2.8 [Turn left (southwest) on Pallett Creek Rd.]

2.9 A veneer of alluvium is down-faulted against bedrock in the cut beneath the stone house on the right. In the cuts ahead and in the hills to the north, crushed and altered granitic rocks are overlain by several generations of Pleistocene alluvium. Clasts in the alluvial deposits north of the fault include Pelona Schist, volcanic rocks and rarely syenite. The original source of these clasts was probably Sierra Pelona and the Soledad Pass area to the south of the San Andreas fault but their immediate source is probably older alluvial deposits between the San Andreas and Punchbowl faults to the south.

4.5 Road crosses San Andreas fault at curve.

5.0 [Intersection with Longview Rd. Turn left to visit Devil's Punchbowl if time permits. The area is a county park with good access to outcrops via trails.]

The relationship between the Punchbowl Formation of this area and that of Cajon Pass is important to an understanding of the fault offset. Were the two formations deposited in close proximity to each other?

5.0 [Turn right on Longview Rd.]

5.3 Road crosses San Andreas fault at highway marker 24.77. Tilting and minor faulting is conspicuous in old alluvial deposits exposed in cuts to the south of the main break.

6.1 [Intersection with Fort Tejon Rd; turn left (west); stay on Ft. Tejon Rd. for next 5 mi.] The hills to the north of the road are underlain by deeply weathered but essentially unfaulted granitic rocks.

11.2 [Turn left (west) onto Mt. Emma Rd.]

12.7 Road cuts expose pinkish sandstone of the Pliocene Anaverde Formation capped by gravel from Little Rock Creek. The Anaverde Formation crops out along the north side of the San Andreas fault for the next 28 mi.

13.1 Mt. Emma Rd. Stop

[Park at the east end of low ridge to south of road.]

The ridge consists of faulted Anaverde sandstone capped by gravel offset from Little Rock Creek. Walk to the crest of the ridge. Light colored boulders with large K-feldspar crystals are Lowe Granodiorite. Note gash-like swales formed by faulting, probably produced by severe shaking of ridge crests. The San Andreas fault extends along the south side of the ridge and crosses Mt. Emma Rd. in the area of the large fill (at highway marker 8.03), 0.3 mi. west of the parking area. Its trace, trending N63°W, can be seen for many miles in both directions. The course of Little Rock Creek to the northwest is offset about 1.5 mi. to the right; however, this is only a partial offset. Gravel containing boulders of Lowe Granodiorite and other rock types characteristic of the Little Rock Creek drainage area are exposed along the north side of the fault for as much as 7 miles to the east.

Follow the ridge crest west to the road. If time permits, look at the crushed granitic rock in the canyon bottom to the south of the fault.

13.7 Pliocene(?) sandstone and conglomerate are exposed in the cut on the right and gypsiferous siltstone and shale are exposed in the next cut west. These beds are mapped as Punchbowl Formation by Noble (1954) but are lithologically distinct from beds in Devil's Punchbowl and Cajon Valley. Part of this formation is lithologically similar to the Anaverde Formation but the two formations contain different clast assemblages and were probably deposited in separate basins, perhaps several miles apart. This formation contains abundant clasts of Pelona Schist, probably from Sierra Pelona

14.5 The road crosses Little Rock Creek which has a larger drainage area than any other stream flowing northward from the San Gabriel Mountains. Note the coarse

gravel in the channel. The granitic ridge projecting up over 400 feet along the east side of the channel prevents Little Rock Creek from migrating eastward. Thus, the occurrence of Little Rock Creek gravel along the north side of the San Andreas fault to the east is the result of fault displacement.

14.7 [Intersection with Cheseboro Rd.; turn right (north).]

14.8 Fault in cut to west places altered granitic rocks on south against sedimentary rocks on north. Area capped by bouldery alluvium from Little Rock Creek.

15.4 [Turn left (west) on Barrel Springs Rd. and continue 0.6 mi.]

16.0 Barrel Springs Rd. Stop

The San Andreas trends along the canyon bottom to north. On the south is alluvium from the San Gabriel Mountains, including coarse gravel from Little Rock Creek. Walk onto the ridge spur directly north of the San Andreas. The lower part of the spur is underlain by southward dipping old alluvium containing syenite clasts identical to syenite exposed south of the fault about 5 miles west. Further north along the spur, older alluvium contains coarse clasts of Pelona Schist, including garnet-bearing types characteristic of eastern Sierra Pelona, 7 to 8 miles west. Similar old alluvium with Pelona Schist and syenite clasts occurs locally beneath Little Rock Creek gravels on the north side of the San Andreas fault as much as 3 miles further east; thus providing evidence for about 10 miles of right slip since the most easterly gravels were deposited. The Pelona Schist and syenite gravel can also be observed on the ridge crest on the east side of 47th St., 0.4 mi. west.

18.4 Barrel Springs Rd. crosses the California Aqueduct. Note the gate on the aqueduct which is designed to close if an earthquake causes the channel to rupture where it crosses the San Andreas fault a short distance east.

19.0 [Intersection with Pearblossom Highway; turn left and go 0.3 mi. south and

park in broad area beyond aqueduct.] The San Andreas fault goes through the intersection.

19.3 Pearblossom Highway Stop

The cut exposes old alluvium containing Pelona Schist gravel. Dark colored Pliocene(?) claystone (old lake deposits) has been injected upward along a fault near the center of the cut. The injection probably occurred during a single severe earthquake when the claystone was in a saturated condition. The Pelona Schist gravel undoubtedly came from Sierra Pelona, 4 to 6 miles west, but its position south of the San Andreas fault poses a problem. The absence of other clast types makes it unlikely that it was deposited by a stream draining eastward along the fault. It has probably been offset along the Nadeau fault to the south or it may have been deposited along the north side of the San Andreas fault, offset along the fault and then washed back onto the south side.

[Proceed 1.3 mi. south to Sierra Highway turn right and continue 2.3 mi. to Una Lake.]

22.9 Una Lake Stop

Una Lake is a sag pond along the south side of the San Andreas fault. The compression ridge to the north consists of Pelona Schist gravel resting on faulted sandstone of the Anaverde Formation.

[Proceed 0.3 mi.; turn left on S St. and continue 1 mi. to freeway. Park on shoulder on either side of freeway access roads.]

24.3 Antelope Valley Freeway Stop

Walk northward along outside of freeway fence to top of hill. Climb the west side for evening viewing and the east side for morning viewing. Note low scarp along southern edge of hill. It was probably formed during the 1857 Fort Tejon Earthquake. From the top of the hill you can see folds and faults in the

liocene Anaverde Formation exposed in the freeway cuts. Some of the faults appear to offset the ground surface, suggesting that the structure is still evolving. To what extent should development be restricted in areas such as this?

Syenite gravel, such as that observed to the north of the San Andreas fault several miles east, can be seen in place by going 0.2 mi. west of the freeway on S St. and then going south (left) on Guyon St. for 0.4 mi. The ground is covered with syenite gravel derived from Tenhi Mtn., directly to the south. This is also a good place to collect syenite for comparison with that from the Orocopia Mountains.

Belona Schist is exposed about 2 miles west on S St.

[Palmdale is 1.5 mi. north on the freeway.]

PALMDALE - SOLEDAD BASIN LOOP (62 miles round trip)

The Soledad Basin contains the same distinctive basement formations as the Orocopia Mountains and is believed to have been located directly southwest of the Orocopia Mountains prior to displacement along the San Andreas fault.

[From Palmdale take the Antelope Valley Freeway (State 14) south 12 miles; turn off on Crown Valley Rd. and go south past the town of Acton. Turn right on Soledad Canyon Rd. and proceed 1.5 mi. south to second series of outcrops and park near highway marker 21.75.]

Parker Mountain Stop

Parker Mountain is the most westerly exposure of the Lowe Granodiorite pluton, described by Ehlig (this vol.). The hornblende-bearing facies, typical of the pluton's western margin, is exposed here. Other facies of the Lowe Granodiorite are best seen along Angeles Forest Highway. On the west side of Parker Mountain, the Oligocene - lower Miocene Vasquez Formation contains coarse breccias derived from the hornblende-bearing facies.

[Continue 2.1 mi. southwest on Soledad Canyon Rd. then park.]

Soledad Canyon Stop

The white outcrops are of deeply weathered anorthosite similar to that exposed in Painted Canyon in the Mecca Hills. Anorthosite, and related gabbro and diorite underlie the region south of Soledad Canyon and can be observed in road cuts for the next several miles. The Soledad fault separates anorthosite from the Vasquez Formation exposed to the north. The fault was very active during deposition of the Vasquez Formation but has been inactive since late Miocene time and is not likely to reactivate because it is offset in several places by cross faults.

[Continue west on Soledad Canyon Rd. for another 10 miles. Pass under freeway (State 14) then turn right 0.4 mi. further onto Shadow Pines Blvd. Go 0.7 mi. to end and then 1 block west to Abelia Rd.; turn right and continue north 0.4 mi. to side road on right leading into Tick Canyon Wash. Park along wash.]

Tick Canyon Stop

The area is underlain by westward-dipping sandstone and conglomerate of the upper Miocene Mint Canyon Formation. Notice that most of the clasts in the conglomerate are of volcanic origin. A few of the clasts contain abundant phenocrysts of mantled feldspar (rapakivi texture). These clasts are derived from dikes near the northern end of the Chocolate Mountains. The other volcanic clasts are also characteristic of volcanic rocks exposed in the Chocolate Mountains (see Ehlig and others, this vol.). Also, note channelling and clast imbrication indicating sediment transport from east to west.

[Return to Soledad Canyon Rd. and go 2 miles west to Sand Canyon Rd.; turn right and go 0.9 mi. north.]

Sand Canyon Pause Stop

The yellowish bed, about six inches thick exposed in the roadcut on left, contains tiny shells of fresh water clams. This part of the Mint Canyon Formation was deposited in a deltaic environment near the margin of a lake. Beds further east are entirely of fluvial origin. Beds of lacustrine origin are dominant in Boquet Canyon to the northwest and south of the Santa Clara River to the southwest.

[Continue 1 mile to Sierra Highway; turn right and go 3 miles north to area of basement exposures. Park near highway marker 40.48.]

Sierra Highway Stop

Augen gneiss crops out along sides of canyon. Note large ovoids of pink K-feldspar. Similar augen gneiss occurs in the eastern Orocochia Mountains to the east of the San Andreas fault and in the vicinity of Frazier Mountain to the west of the San Gabriel fault (Crowell, this vol.). Augen gneisses from all three areas yield concordant U-Pb ages of about 1670 m.y. (Silver, 1971).

[Continue northeast on Sierra Highway for 10 miles to freeway (State Highway 14). Pass over freeway and park on north side of Escondido Canyon Rd.]

Escondido Canyon Road Stop

Precambrian syenite is exposed in cuts along the south side of the road. Note similarity between this syenite and that exposed in the northwestern Orocochia Mountains.

[Return to Palmdale via State 14; distance 14 miles.]

PALMDALE TO LAKE OF THE WOODS

0.0 [From the freeway (State 14) go 1 mile northwest on Palmdale Blvd. and then go left on Elizabeth Lake Rd. Continue west to 5.6; park near highway marker 5.65. This stop is 2.2 mi. east of intersection

with Godde Hill Rd.]

Leona Valley Stop

The San Andreas fault is exposed at the bend in the gully along Armagosa Creek to the north of the road. Here soil and alluvium are faulted against sandstone and conglomerate of the Pliocene Anaverde Formation. The scarp to the east of the gully was probably created, in part, during the 1857 Fort Tejon earthquake. A mile to the west the road runs along the base of a prominent scarp which is probably the product of numerous earthquakes.

[Continue 2.2 mi. west to intersection with Godde Hill Rd.]

Because of limited time, the field trip bypasses the next 30 miles of the San Andreas fault. For those who have the time, it is well worthwhile to continue along the fault to observe the numerous examples of topography modified by faulting.

[Turn right on Godde Hill Rd. and proceed north across Portal Ridge.]

Portal Ridge is underlain by Pelona Schist as is Sierra Pelona, directly across the San Andreas fault to the south. This occurrence of schist on opposite sides of the fault is probably fortuitous, as a result of its wide distribution. Similar schist occurs along the Garlock fault in the Tehachapi Mountains to the northwest and in the Rand Mountains to the north. Alternatively, the Hitchbrook fault along the north side of Portal Ridge might be a cut off segment of the San Andreas fault. In this case the schist of Portal Ridge would have originated south of the San Andreas, perhaps as a slice from Pelona Schist of Mount Pinos to the west of Frazier Park.

[North of Portal Ridge Godde Hill Rd. becomes Ave. 60. Go 12 miles north and turn left onto the Old Ridge Route (County Rd. N2) and follow the old concrete road 2.0 mi. up the hill and park.]

Old Ridge Route Stop (Fig. 6)

Examine the low-angle thrust that brings shattered gneiss and granite across sandstone and conglomerate of the Plio-Pleistocene Hungry Valley Formation. The thrust is cut by several splays from the San Andreas fault. Bald Mountain consists of a wedge-shaped mass of basement rock riding on faults that converge at depth. The thrust plate extends for a few miles and probably formed by down-slope movement from a "mushrooming" basement wedge elevated in a strike-slip regime. The thrust plate is too large to be visualized as a simple landslide; moreover, there is no appropriate uphill source for the hanging-wall block.

[Go 0.2 mi. further; turn left on Pine Canyon Rd.; continue 0.7 mi. and park near highway marker 18.10.]

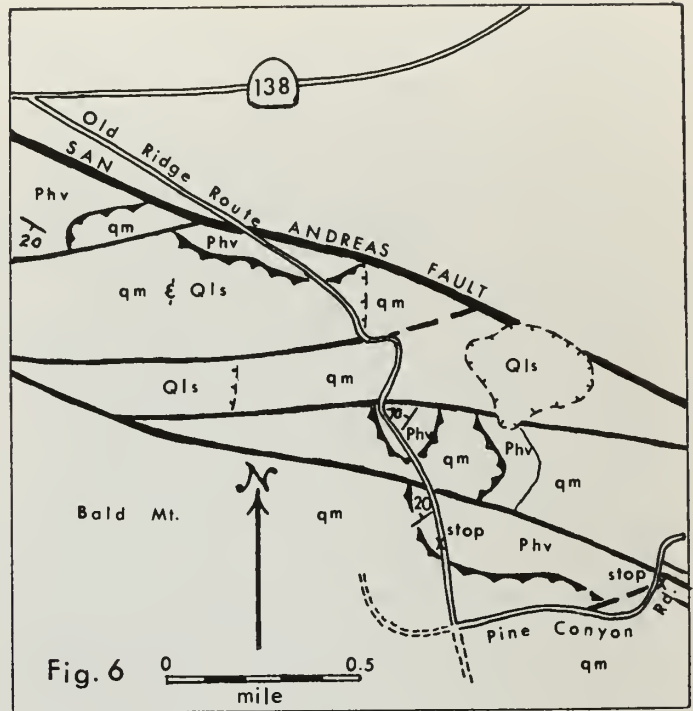
Pine Canyon Rd. Stop

Road cut contains vertical sandstone and conglomerate beds of the Ridge Basin Group faulted against shattered quartz monzonite. The fault consists of several feet of black gouge and contains phacoids of granitics and sediments. The main San Andreas fault is about a third of a mile north.

Go about 1/4 mi. around corner to turn around. Return to State 138 and continue west 2.7 mi. to the entrance to the Southern California Edison Bailey Substation. Stay right on Gorman Post Rd. where State 138 curves south.]

Bailey Substation Stop

The cut along the entrance road provides good exposures of the marine upper Miocene Quail Lake Formation, also referred to as the Santa Margarita Formation. Refer to Crowell (1952) and Dibblee (1967) for a description of the formation. It rests unconformably on the lower Miocene Neenach Volcanic Formation and on granitic rocks. No offset has been established for the Quail Lake Formation at the Neenach Volcanic Formation has been correlated with the Pinnacles Vol-



canic Formation, from which it has been separated by 195 miles of right slip along the San Andreas fault (Matthews, 1973). The Neenach volcanics can be seen along the road in Pine Canyon, about 8 miles east.

[Proceed northwestward to Gorman.]

The road follows the San Andreas fault; notice the sagponds, scarps and other geomorphic evidence of recent faulting. Slices of purple volcanics lie within the fault zone. The Plio-Pleistocene Hungry Valley Formation crops out south of the fault zone and pink microcline granite with pendants of marble and hornfels crops out to the north. Gorman is precisely on the main strand of the San Andreas fault zone; note scarps in the topography to the northwest. Large landslides and small thrust masses, probably squeezed from the San Andreas zone, occur near the intersection of Gorman Post Road with Interstate 5.

[Pass under Interstate 5 and take frontage road 3 miles northwest to Frazier Mtn. Rd.]

The San Andreas fault crosses the road at the crest of Tejon Pass, 2 miles west of Gorman. High terraces to the west on the flank of Frazier Mountain correlate with other terrace remnants throughout this general region. The Garlock fault intersects the San Andreas fault a mile northwest of Tejon Pass. As you approach Frazier Mountain Rd., pause and look northeastward along the trace of the Garlock fault. It has not moved in this region as recently as the San Andreas fault, so that scarps and other fault landforms are lacking. Rocks to the south of the Garlock consist of pink coarse-grained microcline granite with pendants; those to the north consist of white fine-grained quartz monzonite with similar roof pendants of marble and hornfels. These northern rocks are thrust over gabbros and gneisses on the Pastoria thrust, an ancient movement zone which crosses Interstate 5 near Fort Tejon, north of our route. The Garlock fault probably has a total left slip of about 40 miles (Smith, 1962).

0.0 [Turn west along Frazier Mountain Rd.; continue past the town of Frazier Park to Lake of the Woods.]

For several miles along this stretch, the San Andreas fault has an east-west trend. The northwest-trending San Gabriel fault joins the San Andreas fault in this area but is not exposed at the surface. A wedge-shaped plate of Precambrian gneiss and migmatite, which constitutes Frazier Mountain to the south, has been thrust southeastward across the trace of the San Gabriel fault (Crowell, this vol.).

[Park on Frazier Mtn. Rd. 0.3 mi. beyond its intersection with Cuddy Valley Rd.]

7.0 Lake of the Woods Stop

Augen gneiss is exposed to the right of the road. Note the similarity between it and augen gneiss observed along Sierra Highway in the Soledad Basin. The gneiss at this location is probably a fault slice within the Big Pine fault zone. The main exposures of augen gneiss are on

Frazier Mountain to the southeast (Crowell, this vol.).

The east-west trending Big Pine fault intersects the San Andreas fault northeast of the junction of Frazier Mtn. Rd. and Cuddy Valley Rd. A few miles west of here, the Oligocene-lower Miocene Plush-Ranch Formation contains coarse breccia beds along the north side of the Big Pine fault indicating the fault was active at that time (Bohannon, this vol.). In addition to vertical displacement the Big Pine fault probably has about 8 miles of left slip along it (Carman, 1964).

[Refer to Crowell (this vol.) for a field guide along the San Andreas fault between here and the Carizzo Plains.]

[Return to Gorman.]

GORMAN TO CASTAIC

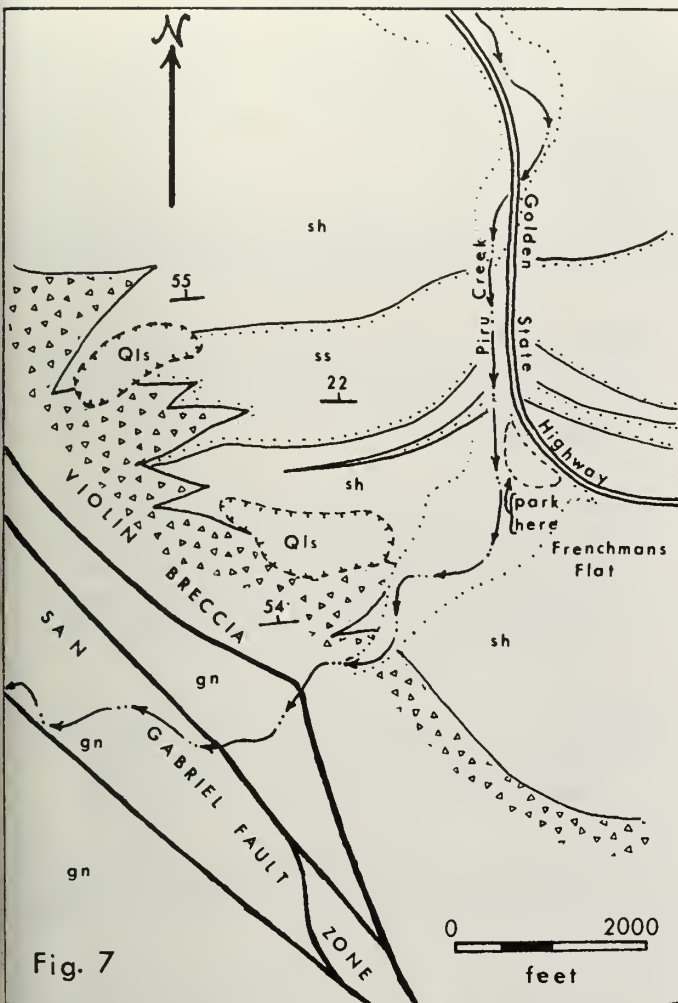
0.0 [Proceed southward on Interstate Highway 5 at Gorman.]

3.7 [Take Quail Lake turnoff onto frontage road along west side of freeway and continue south 0.8 mi. Park at the south end of the long cut.]

4.5 Peace Valley Stop

White conglomeratic sandstone and greenish siltstone of the Pliocene Hungry Valley Formation lie unconformably upon quartz monzonite which is exposed in the core of an anticline. The unconformity can be clearly traced to the west around the plunging nose of the anticline. On the southwest, however, strata of the underlying Peace Valley beds, including coarse sedimentary breccias, abut against the folded basement at a high angle. The subsurface trace of the Liebre fault bounds this basement anticline on the south.

The unconformity exposed in the road cut is a "skidded" unconformity characterized by a foot of gouge. In fact, all rocks here are crushed and disturbed: the quartz monzonite is



fractured and at places comminuted; the Hungry Valley strata are faulted, phacoided, and folded. The outcrop lies between the San Andreas fault and the plunging end of the Liebre Mountain anticline on the south.

[Return to Interstate 5 and proceed south.]

Between here and Castaic, Interstate 5 crosses the axial part of the Ridge Basin which contains about 29,000 feet of upper Miocene and Pliocene strata of the Ridge Basin Group. The lowermost 2000 feet of the group is marine but the bulk of the section is of fluvial and lacustrine origin. Ridge Basin is along the northeast side of the San Gabriel fault and its formation is no doubt related to major right slip on the San Gabriel fault. Refer to Crowell (this vol.) for details.

20.1 [Turnoff on Templin Highway and proceed 0.3 mi. west; turn right (north) on Golden State Highway; continue 5.0 mi. Park in Frenchmans Flat campground on west side of road and walk down Piru Creek into the gorge (Fig. 7).

25.4 Frenchmans Flat Stop

The great thickness of northward-dipping sandstone and shale, which is exposed along the highway, grades abruptly into the Violin Breccia to the west (Crowell, this vol.). The Violin Breccia, a part of the Ridge Basin group which consists of a rubble of gneiss blocks as much as 6 feet in diameter in a muddy matrix, accumulated as talus or alluvial debris or mudflows at the base of the San Gabriel fault scarp. It crops out for 20 miles along the northeast side of the San Gabriel fault and has a stratigraphic thickness of over 35,000 feet but extends along strike to the east a maximum distance of 5,000 feet.

Examine the change in bedding characteristics and sedimentary structures as you cross the facies transition from shale to breccia and approach the San Gabriel fault. The main fault is exposed on the north side of the gorge, where about two inches of coherent gouge or cataclasite crops out in a gully. Here comminuted granitic and gneissic rocks are brought against Violin Breccia. Basement rock on down the canyon is severely deformed and the fault zone is actually broad and contains several slices.

Formations older than 10 to 12 million years are offset by about 35 to 40 miles to the right along the San Gabriel fault (Crowell, this vol.; Ehlig and others, this vol.). During the Pliocene, the San Gabriel fault was probably the main strand of the San Andreas in this area. There is little evidence to indicate that the presently active strand of the San Andreas fault bounding Ridge Basin on the northeast was active at the same time as the San Gabriel fault.

[Return to Templin Highway.]

0.0 [Pass under Interstate 5 and follow Templin Highway north to Old Ridge Route; park 0.2 mi. north of intersection.]

1.3 Old Ridge Route Stop

Overview of Ridge Basin. Note structure and overlap relations to the north and east along Castaic Canyon. Roadcuts in the vicinity display alluvial and lacustrine sedimentary features. Of particular interest are severely disturbed and contorted layers, perhaps formed during sliding on subaqueous slopes as a result of either tectonic oversteepening (during earthquakes?) or sedimentary overloading. Walk southward as much as 1/4 mile along the Old Ridge Route and examine these sedimentary features.

[Continue northeastward down Templin Highway to the bridge across Castaic Creek. Park east of the bridge.]

5.2 Castaic Creek Stop

The unconformity at the base of the Ridge Basin Group is well marked in the walls of Castaic Canyon about one-third of a mile up the canyon from the bridge. The Paleocene San Francisquito Formation underlies the Ridge Basin Group in this area.

[The guide ends here. It is about an hours drive to Los Angeles via Interstate 5.]

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PRELIMINARY FAULT AND GEOLOGIC MAP OF SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA

Reprinted from Preliminary Report 13 (1973)

This preliminary map is published to satisfy the urgent demand for an up-to-date, comprehensive fault map of California. It was made largely from pen-and-ink tracings of the original compilation. This preliminary map will be followed by a Fault Map and a Geologic Map of California. These maps will show essentially the same data as this preliminary map but the lines will be colored, the symbols and lettering improved, and the geologic units on the Geologic Map will be in color. Hence the later maps will be more legible, they will also be accompanied by a text and source index.

COMPILED BY
CHARLES W. JENNINGS

WITH ASSISTANCE FROM
R.G. Strand, T.H. Rogers, M.C. Shoen, J.L. Burns, J.E. Koble and R. Shenz
GEOLOGIC GRAPHICS BY R.R. Meier and R.A. Switzer

STRATIGRAPHIC SYMBOLS

CENOZOIC SEDIMENTARY ROCKS

- Q Alluvium (mostly Holocene, some Pleistocene)
- Qa Quaternary alluvium
- Qb Selected large (boulders)
- Qc Glacial deposits
- Qd Dune sand (isolated large sand deposits, generally near coast or along)
- Qe Pleistocene alluvium
- P Pleistocene marine
- M Miocene marine
- Mc Miocene marine
- O Oligocene marine
- E Eocene marine
- Ec Eocene marine
- Pc Pleistocene marine
- Tc Tertiary marine

PRECENOZOIC SEDIMENTARY AND METAMORPHIC ROCKS

- Tk Coastal belt marine sedimentary rocks, is included by some in the Franciscan Formation. Previously considered Cretaceous, but now known to also contain early Tertiary microfossils.
- K Cretaceous marine, undivided includes some nonmarine strata
- Ku Upper Cretaceous marine
- Kl Lower Cretaceous marine
- Kf Franciscan (includes the predominantly sedimentary and metamorphic rocks, includes Franciscan melange, except where specified; see below)
- Kfa Franciscan melange of fragmented and altered rocks
- Kfb Franciscan schist (Blueschist and semischist)
- J Jurassic marine including Knoxville Formation
- T Triassic marine
- Pm Permian marine
- C Carboniferous marine
- D Devonian marine
- SO Silurian and Ordovician marine
- C Cambrian marine
- m Metamorphic rocks of Pro-Tertiary age, undivided
- U Unconsolidated and matrix of Pro-Tertiary age
- sch Schist of Pro-Tertiary age
- Pr Paleozoic marine, undivided includes some Tertiary rocks in Klamath Mountains area
- pc Precambrian rocks, undivided

VOLCANIC ROCKS

- Qv Holocene (Recent) volcanic rocks
- QvH Holocene (Recent) pyroclastic rocks including volcanic ashfall deposits
- QvT Quaternary volcanic rocks
- QvT Quaternary and Tertiary volcanic rocks including volcanic mudflow deposits
- Tv Tertiary volcanic flow rocks or undivided flow and pyroclastic rocks
- TvT Tertiary pyroclastic rocks including volcanic mudflow deposits
- Ti Tertiary intrusive rocks

METAVOLCANIC ROCKS

- Mv Mesozoic, metavolcanic rocks including Franciscan volcanic rocks
- Pv Paleozoic, metavolcanic rocks
- mv Pre-Tertiary metavolcanic rocks

PLUTONIC ROCKS

- gM Mesozoic granitic rocks
- gM Mesozoic granitic rocks
- gM Mesozoic (including Franciscan) granitic rocks
- gM Pre-Tertiary granitic rocks including unroofed and gabbro of San Gabriel Mts.
- gT Quaternary rocks of Tertiary age
- gT Gabbro and some dioritic rocks chiefly of Mesozoic age
- gm Unroofed rocks

UNDIVIDED

- gm Pre-Tertiary granitic and metamorphic rocks, undivided
- gM Complex of Precambrian igneous and metamorphic rocks, may be Mesozoic in part

FAULT SYMBOLS

Onshore Faults (For color code, see below)

- ? Dashed line where fault location is approximate or inferred; dotted where fault is controlled by younger rocks or by lakes or bays; question marks where continuation or existence of fault is uncertain. Many concealed faults in the Great Valley are based on subsurface maps of various selected horizons and locations shown are often approximate; they may be indicative of structural trend only.
- ? Faults indicated by acoustic-reflection profiling records; location approximate. Long dashes where record of fault is well defined, short dashes where records are less well defined or fault inferred, question marks where continuation is uncertain.
- ? Topographic lineament indicated on bathymetric charts. May represent possible fault or fault zone. (Shown south of Pt. Conception only).

Offshore Faults (For color code, see below)

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- ? Topographic lineament indicated on bathymetric charts. May represent possible fault or fault zone. (Shown south of Pt. Conception only).

FAULT CLASSIFICATION COLOR CODE (Indicating Recency of Movement)

- Fault having moved during historic time (approximately 200 years) and associated with one or more of the following:

- (a) a recorded earthquake with surface rupture. (Also included are some well defined surface breaks caused by ground-shaking during earthquakes e.g., extensive ground breakage on the White Wolf associated earthquake indicated. Where repeated surface ruptures on same fault have occurred, only the date of latest movement may be indicated, especially if earlier reports are not well documented as to location of ground breaks.

- A triangle to the right or left of the date indicates termination point of surface displacement.

- Date bracketed by triangles indicates local fault break.

- No triangle by date indicates an intermediate point along fault break.

- (b) fault creep slippage—slow ground displacement usually without accompanying earthquakes. Red dot on fault indicates location where fault creep slippage has been observed and recorded.

- Red square on fault indicates where fault creep slippage has occurred that has been triggered by an earthquake on some other fault. Date of causative earthquake indicated. Red square to right and left of date indicate terminal points between which triggered creep slippage has occurred (creep either continuous or intermittent between these end points).

- (c) displaced survey lines

- Quaternary fault displacement (during past 2 million years), without historic (approximately 200 years) record. Recognized by shape in alluvium, terraces, or other Quaternary units; off-stream courses; alignment of sag depressions, fault troughs, and fault ridges; markedly linear steep mountain fronts (associated with an "elbow" concealed in Quaternary sediments as indicated by well data. (Note: Where local evidence indicates that a fault has moved during Quaternary time, the entire length of the fault is shown as Quaternary unless contrary evidence is available).

- Pre-Quaternary fault (older than 2 million years) or fault without recognized Quaternary movement. (Note: Some faults shown bounding Quaternary rocks and older rocks are included in the pre-Quaternary category because the source of mapping used was of reconnaissance nature or the mapping was not done with the object of dating fault movements).

- Faults shown in this category should not necessarily be considered "dead". Evidence for recency of movement may not have been observed or it may be lacking because the fault may not be in contact with Quaternary deposits. In many cases the evidence may have been destroyed by erosion, or covered by vegetation or by work of man.

SPECIAL FAULT NOTATIONS

- U Upthrown side (relative or apparent).
- D Downthrown side (relative or apparent).
- Arrows along fault indicate relative or apparent direction of lateral movement.

SCALE 1:750,000

(1 inch equals approximately 12 miles)

0 10 20 30 40 Miles

0 10 20 30 40 50 Kilometers

Submarine contour interval: 100 fathoms

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FAULT SYMBOLS

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Dashed line where fault location is approximate or inferred; dotted where fault is concealed by younger rocks or by lakes or bays; queried where continuation or existence of fault is uncertain. Many concealed faults in the Great Valley are based on subsurface maps of various selected horizons and locations shown are often approximate; they may be indicative of structural trend only.

Offshore Faults (For color code, see below)

Faults indicated by acoustic-reflection profiling records; location approximate. Long dashes where record of fault is well defined, short dashes where records are less well defined or fault inferred, queried where continuation is uncertain.

Topographic lineament indicated on bathymetric charts. May represent possible fault or fault zone. (Shown south of Pt. Conception only).

FAULT CLASSIFICATION COLOR CODE
(indicating Recency of Movement)

Fruit having moved during historic time (approximately 200 years) and associated with one or more of the following:

(a) a recorded earthquake with surface rupture. (Also included are some well defined surface breaks caused by ground-shaking during earthquakes e.g. extensive ground breakage not on the White Wolf fault caused by Arvin-Tehachapi earthquake of 1952.) Date of associated earthquake indicated. Where repeated surface ruptures on same fault have occurred, only the date of latest movement may be indicated, especially if earlier reports are not well documented as to location of ground breaks.

A triangle to the right or left of the date indicates termination point of surface displacement.

Date bracketed by triangles indicates local fault break.

No triangle by date indicates an intermediate point along fault break.

(b) fault creep slippage--slow ground displacement usually without accompanying earthquakes. Red dot on fault indicates location where fault creep slippage has been observed and recorded.

Red square on fault indicates where fault creep slippage has occurred that has been triggered by an earthquake on some other fault. Date of cumulative earthquake indicated. Red squares to right and left of date indicate terminal points between which triggered creep slippage has occurred (creep either continuous or intermittent between these end points).

(e) displaced survey lines

Quaternary fault displacement (during past 2 million years), without historic (approximately 200 years) record. Recognized by coarse in alluvium, terraces, or other Quaternary units; off-set stream courses; alignment of sea depressions, fault troughs, and alluvial ridges; markedly linear steep mountain fronts (associated with "alignments" or concealed fault traces). Includes concealed fault-controlled ground water barriers in Quaternary sediments as indicated by well data. (Note: Where local evidence indicates that a fault has moved during Quaternary time, the entire length of the fault is shown on Quaternary unless century evidence is available).

Pre-Quaternary fault: (older than 2 million years) or fault without recognized Quaternary movement. (Note: Some faults shown bounding Quaternary rocks and older rocks are included in the pre-Quaternary category because the source of mapping used was of reconnaissance nature or the mapping was not done with the object of dating fault movements).

Fossils shown in this category should not necessarily be considered "dead". Evidence for recency of movement may not have been observed or it may be lacking because the fault may not be in contact with Quaternary deposits. In many cases the evidence may have been destroyed by erosion, or covered by vegetation or by works of Man.

SPECIAL FAULT NOTATIONS

Upthrown side (relative or apparent).

Downthrown side (relative or apparent)

Arrows along fault indicate relative or apparent direction of lateral movement.

Arrow on fault indicates direction of dip of fault surface.

Thrust fault (barbs on the relatively overthrust block). Fault surface generally dipping less than 45° but locally may have been steepened. Coast Range Thrust is generally modified by later folding and faulting and locally is very steep.

OTHER SYMBOLS

Geologic boundary, dashed where inferred or extrapolated from limited data.

Volcano of Quaternary or Pliocene age.

NOTES

This map is based on a generalization of the 1:250,000 scale Geologic Atlas of California (1958-1969), but has been extensively updated with raw information in many areas. A fault classification color code has been added.

Users of this map should be aware that active faults and earthquakes are the subject of very intensive research and that refinements of the interpretations given here are sure to come within a few years. Therefore, this map should be considered a provisional inventory of faults in California. Revised editions of this map are planned in order to keep abreast of new data and to impart this information to geologists, engineers, planners, and others who use this map.

Persons having additional pertinent data concerning faults of this area are urged to notify C. W. Jennings, California Division of Mines & Geology, Ferry Building, San Francisco, 94111. In order that future editions may be corrected.

[illegible]

METAVOLCANIC ROCKS

Mzv Mesozoic metavolcanic rocks (including Franciscan
volcanic rocks)
Pzv Paleozoic metavolcanic rocks
Bv Basal volcanic, meta-volcanic rocks

PLUTONIC ROCKS

grCt Cenozoic granitic rocks

91512 Mesozoic granitic rocks

gr^{Pz} Paleozoic (including Permo-Triassic) granitic rocks

gab	Precambrian granitic rocks including anorthosite and gabbro of San Gabriel Mass
gr	Granitic rocks of uncertain age
gb	Gabbroic and some dioritic rocks chiefly of Mesozoic age
um	Ultramafic rocks

UNDIVIDED

gram Pro-Tertiary gneissic and metamorphic rocks undivided

PCC Complex of Precambrian igneous and metamorphic rocks may be Mesozoic (in part)

TOPOGRAPHIC BASE MAP BY U.S. GEOLOGICAL SURVEY, 1970
This map is a reduction of a
1:500,000-scale published map.

THE PREPARATION OF THIS MAP WAS FINANCED IN PART THROUGH A COMPREHENSIVE PLANNING GRANT FROM THE DEPARTMENT OF HOUSING AND URBAN DEVELOPMENT, UNDER THE PROVISIONS OF SECTION 701 OF THE HOUSING ACT OF 1968, AS AMENDED

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